

**Tcurism Planning and Destination Marketing:
Towards a Community-Driven Approach**
A Case of Thailand

**A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**

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By

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This thesis argues that while analysing markets and developing strategies to exploit the external market place and to attract tourists remains a central focus for tourism marketers, it is not enough on its own to achieve sustainable tourism destination development. The researcher substantiates this argument by exploring the ‘participatory tourism planning’ concept in detail. Based on this approach, the community is identified as a primary customer for whom tourism marketers have ignored involving in their marketing attention, messages and programmes.

The fundamental concept – marketing orientation and customer orientation - combined with emerging marketing theories were reviewed in order to help examine how destination marketing, a community-driven approach, should be implemented within a destination area. This examination of marketing and community based tourism planning set a platform for this research. This analysis examines *relevance, applicability and potential for an integration* of these two pervasive approaches for tourism planning.

Guided by the theoretical examination, an integrated community-based tourism planning and marketing model was proposed. In order to explore gaps between the proposed model and its practicality, three destination areas (Phuket, Samui and Songkla-Hatyai) in Thailand were studied and evaluated. At this pragmatic level, this thesis identified impediments confronting national and local tourism organisations. The findings of this study draw a particular attention to institutional challenges which require clear identification of responsibilities and coordination of all actors involved in the planning and marketing process. These selected case studies have not only provided critical commentaries to assist tourism planners improve strategically their marketing approaches within community tourism planning, but they also have helped provide avenues for future research.

Key Words: Community Participation, Tourism Planning, Tourism Marketing, Societal Marketing, and Thai Tourism

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For my beloved dad (Jaroon Jantarat)
Jutamas (Jantarat) Wisansing

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Since World War II there has been a phenomenal growth in tourism¹. This has been associated with a number of factors and processes. The introduction of comparatively low-cost air transport, fuelled particularly by the employment of jet aircraft, has been one of the most important factors. People's ability to travel domestically and internationally has been further reinforced by rising levels of affluence. Today, tourism is critical to many countries, generating foreign exchange earnings, creating employment for locals, and indirectly contributing to infrastructure development, technology and expertise (Hall, Jenkins and Kearley, 1997).

Along with the growth of the tourism industry there has been an increasing debate about the negative effects of unplanned tourism development and the haphazard approach to mass tourism, particularly in developing countries (Getz, 1987). Factors such as cultural denigration, loss of traditional pride and ethnic identity as well as environmental degradation are reported (Hughes, 1994). Tourism scholars have increasingly been addressing and resolving these negative issues by questioning the industry's dynamics, the development processes engendered and their consequences for destination areas and local people. Several tourism planning

¹ The question of what constitutes tourism and whether tourism is an industry or not has been long researched without a sign of abating (see Leiper 1979,1983,1990,1990b,1992, Smith 1992). It is not uncommon therefore to read reference to the tourism industry in several scholarly works, but attempts at describing or defining it as an industry are ambivalent. This research adopts the World Travel Organisation (WTO)'s definition as " the activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for business, and other purposes (1995:2).

approaches and models have been advanced and offered as potential solutions to the problems (Tosun, 2000).

In the late 80s, the concept of sustainable development has come to predominantly represent and encompass a set of tourism principles and management methods for the conservation of “tourism product(s)”. Its core orientation diverges considerably from traditional ‘*boosterism*’, which was widely advocated in early 1960s and 1970s (Mckercher, 1993). Over time, conventional tourism planning and development has shifted from a narrow focus on physical or promotional planning facilitating the growth of tourism to a more integrated approach recognising the needs and views of not only developers but also the host community (Getz, 1987).

Despite widespread concerns over the socio-cultural and environmental effects of tourism development, tourism scholars assert that the ‘marketing approach’ to tourism planning remains stagnant with a traditional focus on growth and economic gains (Ryan, 1991, March, 1994). This conceptualisation is focused on a short-term view, whereby promotion activity is a key tool used predominantly to increase visitation, profits and market share. In essence, tourism marketing is seen as being analogous with advertising and selling a destination.

Haywood (1990), Choy (1991), Ryan (1991), March (1994), and Buhalis (2000) are among those who have provided a constructive critique upon the *parasitic*

relationship between marketing and tourism. Haywood (1990) summarises their concerns,

“...it is vital that we examine the premises and presumption that underlies marketing activity. This examination is necessary because many marketers are neglecting issues central to the outcome of touristic activities, namely satisfaction and harmonious relationships”(p. 195).

The controversy is reflected in an increasing debate as to whether a dominant ‘demand-led’ marketing approach has a conflicting goal with sustainable tourism planning and development (ibid). The key criticism about contemporary tourism marketing practice is that it has not yet addressed fully and adequately socio-cultural and environmental sensitivity particularly at the community level (King et al., 2000). It is at this level that both positive and negative impacts are most acute (Ibid). The criticism coincides with the observation that although the ‘marketing concept’ and techniques have been mentioned in many tourism studies, the techniques employed by the tourism industry are less advanced than in other industries (Calantone and Mazanec, 1991, Tregear, McLeay and Moxey, 1997). From a pure marketing perspective, the fundamental question -‘who are the consumers of tourism?’- remains contested.

A clarification of the above issues becomes imperative with the rapid emergence of an ideology which recognises that tourism planning and development must be “..not only in response to markets but also in light of many geographic and management factors related to the destination region” (Gunn, 1988: 77). Tourism

scholars increasingly report that the purposes of tourism development should collectively address a number of goals: visitor satisfaction, rewards to owners or business investors, environmental protection and integration into a community's quality of life (Murphy 1985, Gunn, 1994, Inskeep, 1991). Community participation in tourism planning is seen as the essential tool for sustainable tourism and in maximising the benefits to an area and its residents (Murphy, 1985, Simmons, 1994). Whilst tourism scholars have in recent years paid much attention to advancing approach to tourism planning, a more advanced form of tourism marketing appears to be in its infancy, lacking in practical application.

Tourism marketers are being challenged to integrate *community needs and wants* into their previous exclusive, but inadequate, consumer (tourist) focus. Clearly, to implement a more responsible tourism marketing paradigm, the 'new' tourism-marketing model needs to be more explicit in providing clear guidelines on how to include local community needs and wider social development issues into its processes. Achieving public participation however has not been a straightforward task. To exercise effective participation or involvement, local people and planners need motivation, education and training (Warburton, 1998). In this context, community based marketing like other forms of planning should be viewed as a process that assists people and organisations within the community develop the skills necessary to manage or market their own place.

For tourism marketers the implication drawn from the contemporary integrated goal of tourism development and community based tourism approaches is simple, if marketing is to be *consumer-driven*, focusing exclusively on tourists as consumers is incomplete and short-term oriented. Ryan (1991) makes it unequivocal “that residents as well as tourists are considered as the consumers of tourism” (p.105). This conceptualisation opens up several opportunities for tourism marketing research, particularly the need to examine various domains of the emerging marketing discipline and explore how to integrate (or utilise) these into community-based tourism planning approaches. To bring together marketing and *community-driven* tourism development successfully, research relating to this area is urgently needed. This research will therefore proceed along this path by;

- (1) examining emerging marketing theory and models,
- (2) exploring how existing marketing models can be integrated into community-based tourism planning to attain greater tourist and community satisfaction, and
- (3) Using selected destination areas to explore gaps between a proposed model and the current marketing practices of national and regional tourism organisations.

The goal of this research is to recommend pathways towards a ‘community marketing approach’, which will shift the dominant tourism marketing focus from being exclusively on tourist demands to additionally incorporating community needs and aspirations into the tourism development process. By so doing, the result of this

research hopefully will enable tourism marketers to develop a more responsible and integrated 'community-driven' marketing programme. Within this broad goal four specific objectives are identified.

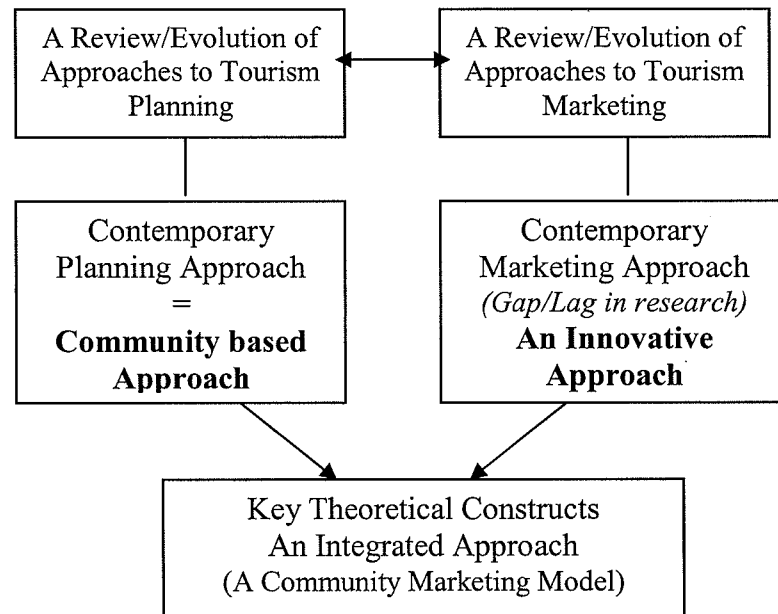
1.1 Research Objectives

- I. To examine the key theoretical constructs of both community-based tourism planning and consumer-driven marketing approaches in order to demonstrate their relevance, applicability and potential for integration.
- II. To examine, to what extent these models (in objective I) are implemented in a national destination area with a broad mandate.
- III. To identify issues and impediments confronting national and local tourism organisations in planning and implementing their local community tourism planning and marketing programmes.
- IV. To recommend pathways toward integrated participatory tourism planning and marketing.

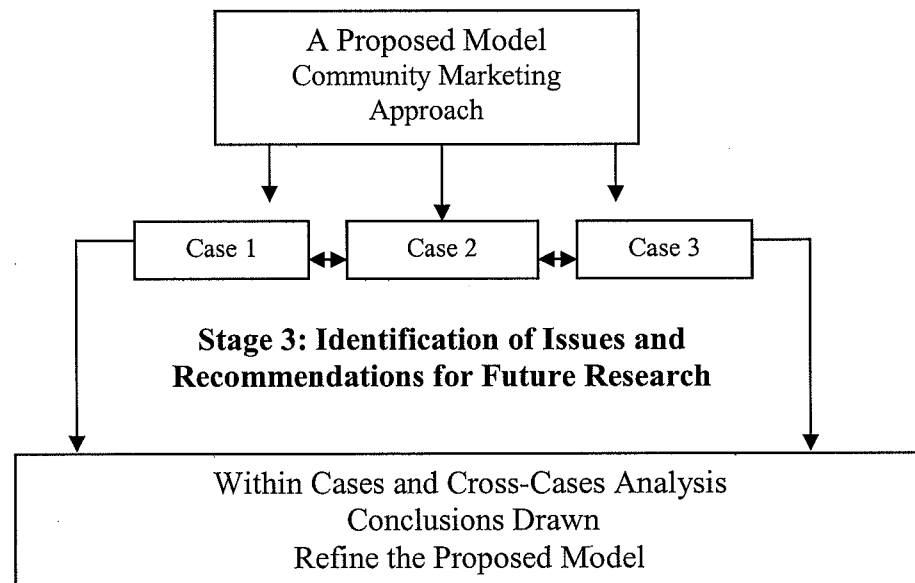
1.2 Conceptual Framework

In order to progress on the above objectives, academic literature on marketing approaches to tourism planning and its evolution need to be explored. A conceptual framework of this research is presented in figure 1 (overleaf).

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework:
Stage 1: Working Model Development



Stage 2: An Evaluation of the Proposed Model
(Within a broad mandate for tourism planning and marketing)



1.3 Contributions, Significance, and Research Originality

- The criticism of mass marketing approaches as applied to tourism planning appears to open the door for a more innovative approach. As mentioned previously, significant criticisms of tourism marketing approaches are found in a review of the tourism literature. Given the difficulties in marketing a destination area, this research hopes to provide a practical response for tourism marketing organisations, specifically to the question: we know what destination marketing is, but how do we do it well? More importantly, by adding a ‘community orientation’ element, tourism marketing could then be used and regarded not only as a tool for attracting more visitors to a regional area, as it has been the case for most destinations, but also should be used as a strategic mechanism to facilitate regional development objectives. The results of this research seek to reconcile the debate surrounding the shortcomings of tourism marketing in practice. Consequently further potential contributions of a revised marketing concept and techniques in support of sustainable and community based tourism can be elucidated.
- Based on the above synthesis of diverse tourism marketing theories and an analysis of the selected case studies, this research proposes to offer a model, contributing toward integrated participatory tourism development rather than the current profit-driven approach. The framework will set out to inform both decision-makers and academic researchers. It is hoped that actionable results of this research will enhance tourism marketing ability to develop effective

marketing programmes that are consistent with the goals of community development and sustainability.

- Most tourism marketing research has focused on the firm and/or tourist as a unit of analysis. This research however will provide a different perspective by focusing on destination area as a unit of analysis.
- For the case study area (Thailand)², this research hopes to shed light to illuminate the underlying participatory planning and marketing issues, which are specific to the Thai tourism context. It is important to note that the researcher aims to contribute to a critique of current tourism marketing programmes, in a constructive senses offering positive, sympathetic analysis on which Thailand can build.
- Destinations that have failed to plan for the orderly growth of tourism have frequently suffered from negative social and environmental problems, or worse, have witnessed a once booming tourism destination slowly deteriorate. To mitigate such a problem, an evaluation of the current tourism marketing campaigns and their approaches used in the selected destination areas in Thailand will help provide a commentary on the strengths and weaknesses of the unbalanced 'growth orientation' in light of lessons for other destinations in parts of the developing world. This is also to provide empirical evidence and to

² The case study will be introduced later in this thesis, (Chapter 6) to provide the pragmatic ground for examining the philosophical foundations which are first established in this and the preceding chapters.

recommend realistic courses of action in response to current tourism marketing critiques.

1.4 Thesis Organisation

Following this introductory chapter, the next two chapters focus on literature review, which comprises two main areas, namely tourism planning (chapter two) and tourism marketing (chapter three). Both chapters provide an overview of contemporary perspectives and issues, which are fundamental to the progress of this study. Chapter four will then incorporate polemics and issues arising from the literature reviewed. As a result, a working model is established, to provide a basic guiding framework for an examination of the selected case studies. Research methods, data collection procedure and data analysis are recorded in chapter five. General background information and the context of the selected case studies are provided in chapter six.

Following the general context, integrative and synthesised data from a variety of sources are presented in chapter seven. Using the research objectives set in chapter one as a benchmark, data presented in chapter seven are discussed and interpreted in chapter eight. Conclusions of this thesis are then drawn in chapter nine. Finally, results of this research coupled with critical issues raised from this research should help identify directions for future research, which is also outlined in the last chapter.

CHAPTER 2 TOURISM PLANNING: CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES AND ISSUES

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of contemporary perspectives and issues in tourism planning. An understanding of these broad concepts and their evolution serves as a precursor to an examination of the relationship between planning and marketing of a destination area (which will be discussed subsequently). Key underlying factors that have resulted in some profound changes to tourism planning and how new forms of tourism (in contrast to mass tourism) have emerged will be outlined.

The arguments then put forward the importance of community participation in tourism planning. Key features of community participation concepts and techniques adopted within tourism planning will also be discussed. The review of these issues aims to bring the practice of community based tourism planning sharply into focus, particularly but not exclusively, in developing countries. Key issues arising in this chapter serve as the basic polemic to be considered in this research.

2.2 The Evolution of Tourism Planning Thought

During the past two decades tourism has emerged as one of the world's major industries. It is exceeding the importance of many manufacturing sectors and other

services in terms of sales, employment and foreign currency earnings (WTO, 2001). While many nations enjoy considerable economic gains from tourism development, closer examination of these gains highlights the cost of socio-cultural degradation and the uneven distribution of benefits. It has been increasingly recognised in many destinations that there is a need for prudent tourism planning and marketing in order to both maximise the positive impacts of increased tourism and to minimise any negative impacts of this rapidly growing industry.

Getz (1987) has identified four broad traditions or approaches to tourism planning: (1) boosterism, (2) an economic, industry-oriented approach, (3) a physical/spatial approach and (4) a community-oriented approach. Drawing on these four approaches, Getz (*ibid.*) offers a prospective approach to tourism planning, which is an integrative planning approach. In the same vein, Jafari (1990) has classified the traditions of tourism studies and research into four platforms: (1) an advocacy platform, (2) cautionary platform, (3) an adaptancy platform and (4) knowledge-based platform. Despite the fact that there were different terms used to capture the evolution of tourism studies and planning approaches, similar themes emerge (as shown in table 1 overleaf and discussed in detail in the following sections).

Table 1: Traditions of Tourism Planning Thought

After Getz (1987) and Jafari (1990)

Getz	Planning Focus	Jafari
Boosterism	How many tourists can be attracted and accommodated? Promotional campaign	Advocacy
Tourism as an industry (Economic Approach)	Can Tourism be used as an economic growth? Maximising income and employment Tourism's importance to the economy	Advocacy
Physical/Spatial	Carrying capacity Managing Tourism impacts Resource-based evaluation	Cautionary
Community-based	'Better' forms of tourism: soft tourism, ecotourism Need for local control Understanding community impacts Responsive to host communities	Adaptancy
Integrative approach	Understanding the tourism system Evaluative research	Knowledge-based

Getz (ibid.) made it clear that these traditions of tourism planning are not mutually exclusive, nor they are necessarily sequential. Jafari (ibid.) also points out that all platforms have emerged without replacing one another, hence all four platforms exist today. In retrospect, both authors indicate consistently that tourism planning (if undertaken at all) was in the past seen as a simplistic process focused simply on encouraging mass tourism. This simplistic form of tourism planning, however, only began in 1960s when the growth of tourism businesses has been recognised gradually as a significant industry (Burns, 1999). This period was seen as a boom time of tourism development.

2.2.1 Boosterism: more is better

A '*boosterism*' approach to tourism planning prevailed throughout 1960s and early 1970s (Hall, Jenkins and Kearsley, 1997). This 'growth-oriented strategy' employed different promotional strategies as dominant marketing tools to increase visitation. This is reflected in public and private tourism organisations spending virtually all of their budgets on promotion (WTO, 1979, Pearce, 1992). Thus, it appears that marketing strategies centred simply on promotional campaigns which were regarded as the significant tourism planning concern. Getz (1987) observed that, "tourism planning has evolved over this period (since the Second World War), with an explosion of economic and marketing ideas coming to dominant tourism planning" (p.7). However it should be noted that the so-called marketing ideas were asymmetrical in the sense that its focuses and techniques were mainly on one 'P' - promotion. It can therefore be concluded that marketing ideas used during this period were narrow and unsophisticated. The focal belief was simply that tourism is good therefore 'the more is the better'. In fact, Getz (ibid.) contends that boosterism is not really planning at all.

2.2.2 Economic Approach

Gradually, the economic significance of tourism was ranked highly by many nations. Tourism related industries become a prevalent means to promote economic gains. Many nations and destinations have succeeded in rapidly reaching their targeted number of visitors. Positive consequences of tourism development were evident in the

considerable generation of employment and increased foreign exchange earnings. Marketing is also the primary tool of this economic approach.

Today, marketing techniques remain dominant as a tourism planning tool (Tosun and Jenkins, 1998). As time progressed, the marketing techniques used however have become more complicated, including considerations and understandings about tourist behaviour, segmentation, and consumer choice theory. Evidence of positive economic impacts can be seen in the numbers of earlier articles and texts, to a large extent, devoted to the economic analysis of tourism (See for example, Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Hughes 1994,). Concepts such as multipliers and input-output models have been introduced and advanced. This line of thought was aimed at finding the best measurement of what exactly tourism can contribute, or in fact has contributed, to the economic development of a destination.

Positive consequences of tourism also noted at this time. Jafari (ibid.) explains that ‘...the Advocacy platform (also) emphasises the non-economic attributes: that tourism preserves the natural and man-made environments; that it revives traditions of the past; and that it actively promotes cultural performances’ (p.34). These arguments from the tourism advocates were convincing, hence strengthening the support of tourism development and its promotional campaigns.

However, as tourism development proceeded, during the 1970s an uneven distribution of benefits, and recognition of tourism’s negative impacts, became more

evident. Consequences of unbalanced or haphazard tourism planning and development have brought a hard lesson for several places where social and environmental impacts were severe (Hills and Lundgren, 1977). Tourism scholars started to question the 'growth paradigm' and clearly voiced a multitude of negative impacts of mass tourism. Jafari (1990) refers to this school of thought as a 'cautionary perspective'. The physical/spatial planning tradition, coined by Getz (1987), falls into this perspective. One of its main concerns was to highlight the negative impacts of tourism in relation to the host community. As a result of this, the *boosterism* belief has been increasingly discredited and tourism practitioners have gradually undertaken a more cautionary approach. From this point, it became apparent that the orientation and techniques of marketing and tourism planning started to diverge. This unbalanced form of planning (or tourism promotion) nonetheless remains to date as a dominant planning approach in many places.

2.2.3 Tourism Impacts: A cautionary perspective

Several studies pertaining to this school of thought were directed at defining stages and models of tourism development. These studies address the relationships between tourism development and host communities. Core works of this school of thought include:

- ◆ Doxey (1975) proposed an irritation index or 'irridex' which uses to assess host-guest interactions and relationships. The model consists of 4 steps: (a) euphoria (delight in contact); (b) apathy (increasing indifference with

larger numbers); (c) irritation (concern and annoyance over price rises, crime, rudeness, cultural rules being broken); and (d) antagonism (covert and overt aggressive to visitors).

- ◆ Smith (1978) proposed seven categories of tourists (Explorer, Elite, Offbeat, Unusual, Incipient mass, Mass and Charter). While “Explorer” is at one end of the spectrum argued on having the least impact on the community, “Charter” tourists connoting massive arrivals is at the other end, having a substantial impact particularly on cross-cultural contact issues.
- ◆ Butler (1980) offered a model to explain the evolution of tourist areas. Tourist destinations are seen to evolve through the stages of exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and then either decline or rejuvenation. The emergence of social impacts on host communities becomes more significant when the development reaches the consolidation stage.

Alongside these studies, the last two decades, has witnessed a burgeoning number of studies focusing on the negative impacts, specifically dealing with the impacts of tourism development on environmental quality, socio-cultural and economic outcomes (e.g. Cohen 1978, Pigram 1980, Liu and Var 1986, Prentice, Witt, and Wydenbach 1994). In aggregate, their views have been called the ‘cautionary’ perspective (Jafari, 1990). In the above works, observations and measurements clearly suggested that positive and negative impacts on local communities were linked closely

to the expansion of tourism. As tourism development has proceeded, both the positive and negative impacts become more and more apparent. A central tourism-planning debate focusing on how the positive impacts might be maximised and the negative community impacts are minimised or mitigated.

The evolution of a destination life cycle model (Butler, 1980) provides a significant conceptualisation in indicating the dynamism of destination areas that both marketers and planners have made use of in their planning and marketing considerations. However, in the language of marketing, the focal point is still on how to overcome obstacles to growth. At the same time, tourism planning literature is concerned not just in terms of how to prolong the destination's *growth* stage, but also related to the evaluation of tourism resources in order to identify desirable rates and acceptable forms of change in the environment, and in local residents' perception of tourism development. This re-evaluation of tourism's relationship with host communities represents considerable challenges to the tourism industry and tourism planners and has led to a strong call for a more integrated planning approach and the need to incorporate other issues into the planning consideration. These include such issues as carrying capacity (Williams and Gill, 1994), destination life cycle (Butler, 1980), spatial patterns and processes (Pearce, 1987), 'Product's Analysis Sequence for Outdoor Leisure Planning' (PASOLP) (Lawson and, Baud-Bovey 1977), to list but a few.

2.2.4 Alternative Forms of Tourism: Adaptancy platform

As a result of the recognition of increased negative community impacts, tourism advocates call for an 'alternative' form of tourism which needs to be a *better* kind of tourism that has the potential to solve the problems and negative impacts associated with 'conventional' mass tourism. Harrison and Husbands (1996) use the term 'responsible tourism'. Other writers speak of eco-tourism (Boo, 1990), soft tourism (Krippendorff, 1982), green tourism (Bramwell, 1991), and appropriate tourism (Singh et al., 1989). The nuances of these terms and concepts have been fiercely contested. Thus it is important not to label all these differing terms into one category. In spite of that, it is arguable that the key objectives and rationale underpinning these many different terms have been similar. According to Godfrey (1996) they can be classified into two broad schools of thought.

1. The Product Approach –planning new sustainable 'products'–

Several tourism scholars view the 'new and better' form of tourism planning as a *replacement* of a conventional mass tourism with new (good) green products. In this sense, a clear distinction is made between two polar opposites such as mass institutionalised tourism on the one hand and 'alternative' tourism on the other. In essence, Wheeler (1991:92) sums up the key figures of this new/good/green product type,

'the traveller is preferred to the tourist, the individual to the group, the independent specialist operators are more acceptable than large firms,

indigenous homely accommodation is preferred to multinational hotel chains etc – basically ‘small’ versus ‘mass’.

According to this line of thinking, alternative or appropriate tourism should therefore embrace small-scale, steady, controlled development.

2. The Industry Approach -planning for a more sustainable ‘industry’ as a whole

In contrast to the product approach, Godfrey (1996:61) explains that “mass tourism is inevitable due to sheer tourism demand, and what is needed is a way to make *all* tourism more sustainable”. The advocates of this approach indicate that viewing a new form of tourism planning as a replacement for the existing market-led approach fails to address the real problems created by mass tourism (Butler, 1989, Wheeler, 1991). In essence, it implies that a new and better planning approach should therefore provide a better mechanism for *all* forms of tourism to become more responsible and sustainable, including a large-scale tourism development. Godfrey further suggests that planning for sustainable tourism requires development to take place within the context of local socio-economic development, and should incorporate all aspects of community well being. Acknowledgement of these issues has highlighted the need for a comprehensive and coordinated goal-setting framework, which has the ‘host community’ as a central focus of tourism planning.

Researchers in the field (for instance, Gunn, 1994; Smith and Eadington, 1994, Inskeep, 1991) made it clear that a “better” tourism planning approach should

constitute benefits for all aspects of community; including sociological (e.g., promotion of community stability, family solidarity, cultural identity), economic (e.g., employment, income), environmental (e.g., conservation/preservation). It is argued that the community will benefit more from tourism development if the community members participate fully both in making decisions that affect their welfare and in implementing these decisions. Therefore, the community based planning process requires involvement of local residents and decision-makers at each step in the process. This manifests a significant shift of tourism planning from being centralised (a top-down approach) to being decentralised (a bottom-up approach).

2.2.5 The Community Approach: Comprehensive and coordinated goal-setting framework

As mentioned previously, academic concern about host-guest relations in tourism began highlighting the negative impacts of tourism on host communities. This cautionary perspective emerged with a call for a tourism planning approach which could advance our understanding on what can be done to predict and alleviate these negative consequences. This awakening was accelerated simultaneously with an increasing concern about the uneven performances of development and environmental issues during 1980s. This in turn has led academics and planners to question economic efficiency as a predominant goal of development, not only in the tourism field but also in general planning and development circumstances. In response, the United Nations appointed an independent World Commission on Environment and Development to

examine the problems. Consequently, the concept of 'sustainable development' was formulated and proposed as an agenda to resolve environmental and developmental problems (WCED, 1987). The WCED described the concept 'as paths of development that satisfy the needs and wants of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs' (p.49). The Commission linked the issue of sustainable development to human rights and clearly emphasised that local people have a right to be consulted about, and to participate in decision making, about activities likely to have an effect on their well being. This idea was accepted widely at the UN Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in Rio in 1992 when world leaders signed up to Agenda 21 confirming that sustainable development requires community participation in practice as well as principle (Warburton, 1998). After UNCED, development agencies have been encouraged to help people to help themselves. This means that approaches to capacity development will gradually require a less interventionist role.

In the tourism field, community based tourism planning has come to the forefront and received substantial attention and advocacy by scholars (for example; Murphy 1985, Gunn 1988, Haywood 1988, Blank 1989, Simmons 1994, Jamal and Getz, 1995, Reed 1997, Timothy, 1999). The main principle of this approach is a quest for community inputs through their active participation in tourism development processes. According to Smith (1978), the mobilisation of community in this way not only fosters improvements in host-guest relationships but also strengthens human and community bonds, which will result in socio-cultural harmony. Therefore, the

community should be consulted and they also should be constantly informed.

Simmons (1994:1) explains that,

“There are two reasons for this. First, the impacts of tourism are felt most keenly at the local destination area and, second, community residents are being recognised as an essential ingredient in the ‘hospitality atmosphere’ of a destination” (emphasis added).

In line with Simmons’ rationale, the most often-quoted works of both Murphy (1985) and Krippendorf (1987) argue for a community-based approach that involves host communities directly in tourism planning. To Murphy (1985: 165), residents’ input is required because “the industry uses the community as a resource, sells it as a product, and in the process affects the lives of everyone”. In other words, tourism draws extensively from community’s resources therefore tourism must not merely *exploit* resources for its own benefit without considering what can be reciprocated to the community. A growing concern of the exploitative outcomes of tourism has led Mckercher (1993:8) to describe tourism as a “voracious consumer of resources” which “represents an insidious form of consumptive activity”. To avoid being viewed as such, several shortcomings of the existing tourism planning process, which tends to be dominated with promotional campaigns, have to be rectified.

2.2.6 Integrative Approach - knowledge based platform

Both Getz (1987) and Jafari (1990) offer comparable guidelines for tourism planners. Jafari (ibid.) states ‘the new platform aims at positioning itself on a scientific foundation and, at the same time, maintaining bridges with other platforms...the goal

is to form a scientific body of knowledge on tourism' (p.5). Similarly, the integrative approach to planning offered by Getz (ibid.) places an emphasis upon an understanding of the whole tourism system based on a rigorous evaluative research. Goals for tourism should therefore be derived from, and integrated into, overall community aspirations. According to Getz (ibid), the planning approach should constitute four key elements:

- Goal oriented- with clear recognition of the role to be played by tourism in achieving broad societal goals;
- Systematic- drawing on research to provide conceptual and predictive support for planners, and drawing on the evaluation of planning efforts to develop theory;
- Democratic- with full and meaningful citizen input from the community level up;
- Integrative- placing tourism planning issues into the mainstream of planning for parks, heritage, conservation, land use and the economy.

2.2.7 Interim Summary: Marketing within the Evolution of Tourism Planning

A significant implication drawn from the review of the evolution of tourism planning thought is that during the boom time the tradition of tourism planning focused dominantly on marketing techniques with an overemphasis upon promotion. At this nascent stage, tourism development and promotion were supported fully, as the positive consequences from such actions were apparent and valued highly. At this

time the relationship between marketing and tourism planning was overlapping. It is arguable that from a practical viewpoint the term 'marketing or planning' a destination was viewed and used interchangeably.

However, the realisation of the dynamic and evolutionary nature of tourism (Butler, 1980) revealed foreseeable negative impacts inherent with tourism growth, particularly to the host community. Academics concerned with these issues and tensions have advocated a more integrated form of planning. The underpinning goal focuses on how to maximise the positive impacts while abating negative impacts. The above literature indicates that it is generally agreed that tourism planning should place the community at the centre of development and take their wellbeing critically into planning consideration. Additionally, it should be noted that community participation is also considered to be an end in its own right, as valuable *per se*. Therefore encouraging participation in tourism planning and development should at least be interpreted as a more democratic way of working. Idealised notions of community participation characterise the literature on the subject. (The challenges of community participation will be discussed shortly).

Marketing was in the past, and will inevitably remain, a significant set of techniques used by tourism planners. It is therefore surprising to find a 'missing link' between tourism marketing theories and tourism planning. While the participatory and integrative planning approach is being advanced and accepted as a 'better' form of tourism planning, the literature review showed clearly that tourism marketing is

lagging behind, still advocating its once conventional development wisdom - *boosterism*. In other words, broad marketing techniques applied to tourism planning appear to be in its infancy. The prospect of marketing within tourism planning, particularly the community-based approach needs to be examined.

The next section introduces the notion of community participation. Key challenges in implementing the concept will be summarised. The discussion will focus on critical issues specifically to tourism planning.

2.3 Community Participation: An overview

According to Jewkes and Murcott (1998), the participatory ideal, originally rooted in political theories of democracy, has emerged since the decades after the 2nd World War. Overtime, the concept has permeated into a core agenda for developers, policy makers and planners in the 1970s and 1980s. Community participation at the time was a common feature of agricultural development programmes and work with the urban poor. Since then, the ideology of community participation has not only been sustained in this field, but also has been widespread to various social development literatures, for instance in health promotion, education, housing, social work, and urban and rural development (Midgley, 1986).

Central to its rationale is a reaction against the centralisation, bureaucratisation and rigidity of the government (ibid.). The focal point of the concept is that the power

of the state or government has extended too far, exploiting and diminishing the freedoms of ordinary people and their rights to control their own affairs. Advocates of the concept postulate that, by involving people actively and genuinely in the development process, attempts to promote economic and social progress would be accelerated. At the same time, it is also believed that the benefits of development achieve greater equity in distribution; hence it is seen as a useful tool to diminish unbalanced development.

Different terms, such as community development, public participation, and community empowerment are used to connote the involvement of people in local affairs. Despite these varied terminologies, these concepts are interrelated, inspired by similar ideas and entail similar processes. Five important assumptions and elements (as listed in table 2) can be identified from the literature.

Table 2: Assumptions and Elements for Community Participation
1. Participation requires voluntary and democratic involvement of people (Strawn, 1994; Butler et al., 1999; Warburton, 1998)
2. Grass-roots initiatives, as opposed to an imposition from above, are essential (Strawn, 1994; Butler et al., 1999a; Milewa et al., 1999).
3. Participants have the capabilities to make choices and influence outcomes (Becker et al., 1998; Warburton, 1998; Stewart and Collett, 1998)
4. All levels of decision-making programmes (setting goals, formulating policies and planning, and implementation) should be shared (Strawn, 1994; Butler et al., 1999a; Milewa et al., 1999).
5. As a result of participation, benefits from development are shared equitably (Zetter and Hamza, 1998).

To practice community participation, which entails all of the above elements, has been proven to be ambitious and complex, particularly to achieve *all* public stakeholders' direct roles in *all* planning processes. Therefore it is not surprising to find the participatory planning literature in the past years centred on the debate on *how to* involve the community in planning (Burns, 2000). Sewell and Phillip (1979) identified three fundamental predicaments in achieving such participation;

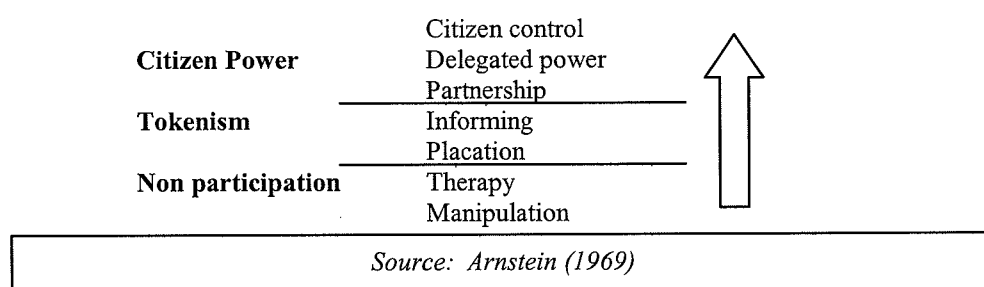
- (1) it is difficult to achieve a high degree of participation with a large number of participants as the depth of engagement tends to decline as more people participated in the activity
- (2) To conquer problem derived from (1), the concept of using 'representative' from community groups has been introduced. However, it is difficult to obtain equity in participation whereby all potential views are represented.
- (3) In order to achieve (1) and (2), it is not always possible to attain a high level of efficiency in terms of amount of time and available resources. These are crucial issues for tourism management agencies and for the public themselves.

These inherent tensions remain challenging to all planners. In fact as the authors (ibid.) concluded that 'it is not possible to attain a maximum level on all three parameters simultaneously; tradeoffs, therefore must be made' (p.354). Further complication arises, as it is also believed that grass-root initiatives are an integral criterion for the participation to be recognised as genuine. In other words, the need for social, economic and other changes must, therefore, be identified by the people, and

enacted by the people. In reality however such participation seldom occurs. Another important predicament, as Sewell and Phillip pointed, is that ‘while it is clear that the public needs to be consulted and certainly on a wide range of issues, not all citizens wish to be consulted and certainly there are many issues that have little interest to most people’ (ibid. p.358). Planners therefore need to determine carefully which issues require input from the public, what segments of the public should be consulted, and how the necessary and meaningful inputs can be obtained most effectively and efficiently (Sewell and Coppock, 1977).

Several authors have offered a more pragmatic view, suggesting a distinction between genuine participation and partial participation. Arnstein’s hierarchy of participation (1969) (Figure 2) shows this distinction clearly.

Figure 2: Ladder of Participation



The ‘ladder’ identifies a tokenistic and therapeutic manipulation at the lower end of the ‘ladder’ to a more positive empowerment of individuals and communities where control of resources and decision making passes to local interests at the upper end. As noted, achieving a more genuine participation at the upper end is challenging.

Scholars have sought many participatory techniques. These include drop-in centres, nominal group technique sessions, citizen surveys, focus groups, citizen task forces, and consensus-building meeting (Ritchie, 1985, Simmons, 1994, Yuksel, Bramwell and Yuksel, 1999). No one technique is found adequate and that the choice and effectiveness of these methods are shaped by objectives sought and various stages of the planning process (Simmons, 1989). Tradeoffs between various techniques must therefore be analysed and made to find the most suitable participatory mechanism.

The preceding literature and discussions have indicated that in the pursuit of a genuine participation, planners and those involved in its execution have recorded the techniques to be complex. The success depends on finding answers to some of the further underlying questions about the links between the participatory concept, political forces, administrative arrangements and, re-distribution of wealth and power. Attempts to achieve such a genuine community participation in tourism hit the same stumbling blocks, which will be specifically discussed as follows.

2.4 Community Based Tourism Planning

The previous section provided a brief overview of general criteria for community participation in planning. The discussion now turns to the community-based tourism planning, aiming to bring these broad participatory issues into a tourism focus. It is noteworthy that while the significance of the ideological dimension of

participatory planning must be recognised, the current emphasis placed on abstract ideals needs to be put into more pragmatic perspective and linked with a very real development or challenges.

There seems to be an agreement among tourism scholars that in spite of an insistence on community participation in the tourism development process, it has been observed, that the performance of participatory development strategies is however not encouraging and authentic participation (Arnstein's citizen power) seldom occurs (Tosun, 2000). The community is still treated as the object of the investigation rather than the active partner in the process. It is also fair to say that the debate is currently *not* one of whether local communities should be involved in the tourism development and planning, but more on *how* and *when* they should be involved. More importantly the question remains as to whether community involvement in planning would indeed result in communities managing to take control of, and to benefit from, tourism development in their locality (Woodley, 1993).

2.4.1 What is the 'community'?

In the tourism literature the meaning of 'community' has not been fiercely contested or examined thoroughly; rather it appears to be self-evident. Community, in the context of tourism planning and development, is usually defined on a geographical basis as a body of people living in the same locality. It is not the purpose of this research to pursue the quest for an all-embracing single definition of "community".

Nevertheless, for the purpose of achieving greater community participation, it can be argued that a more systematic basis for understanding typologies and taxonomies of community, as well as their history and characteristics, is vital. Such a conceptual framework will provide a clearer boundary of what precisely constitutes community or communities. As a result, some of the perceived problems in participatory planning, which are inherent within the historical, social, political, economic and cultural structure of the community, can be better acknowledged. Despite this fact, tourism scholars have been less concerned with typologies of community than with classifying tourists³.

Considering community purely on a geographical basis, contradictions or tensions will inevitably arise, as one simply will expect the multifaceted nature of the community to subsume to 'communities within the community'. Evidence exists in the tourism literature that within the same locality, host community's attitude, interests and opinions toward tourism are diverse. This means that different *types* of hosts respond differently to different types of both tourism and tourist. Ross (1992), for example, found that older residents of an Australian community were more accepting of American and Australian visitors than of other visitors, although younger residents were less positive about American than Japanese visitors. In Canada, Simmons (1994) found greatest support for tourism, which was locally owned and small to medium in scale. Madriga (1993) has employed a 'balance of power' as a

³ Gray (1970) for example distinguishes between wanderlust and sun lust tourists, Plog (1973) between psychocentrics and allocentrics.

measurement of host perceptions and found it to be a significant predictor of differences. In earlier work, Davis, Allen and Cosenza (1988) found the origin of the community members (where they were born) to be a significant tool in identifying community segments.

Although the results of these researchers draw attention to the existence of differences within a community, they fail to give meaningful details of the contextual factors and background specific to the community, for instance its history, community sense, socio-cultural and political values. As Belsky (1999) revealed in her empirical study that ‘conservationist imaginings’ of community lack dynamic historical understanding of particular communities, and instead tend to rely on the idea of unity in sameness (e.g. shared geography, identity, and experience) rather than of unity based on intra-community differences, competition, and resistance. She then concludes that ‘attention was never devoted to analysing community, or how community history, institutions, and social processes might affect outcomes on the ground’ (ibid. p.13). The concerns raised here caution that the analysis of community has been uncritical and based on historically limited views. An attempt to understand the community is not completely absent however. A large part of Horn, Simmons and Fairweather’s study (1998) was given to delineating the community divisions and its structures. The results revealed that ‘although the community (Kaikoura) is close knit in the sense that locals tend to know each other, in fact there are many ways in which the community divides itself...’ (p.9). The authors then conclude that ‘the structure of

the community and the divisions within the community are factors that affect the development, management and perceptions of tourism (in Kaikoura)'(p.18).

The multifaceted nature of community perhaps makes a comprehensive analysis or classification very difficult. Nevertheless, the contemporary studies with reference to community attitudes and reactions to tourism lead to the conclusion that in the process of promoting participatory planning, a community should *not* be treated as a homogenous group. How to define community groups however needs to be investigated further. Correlation between several contextual factors and community attitudes towards tourism/tourists could lead to an establishment of a more suitable and yet effective participatory mechanism specifically for the community. In order to achieve this, Pearce et. al (1996) remind tourism researchers of the need to use an emic, contextual, processual approach. This means that an understanding of tourism and community relationships should be delved from the words and images of communities themselves. To pursue this, Pearce et al. (ibid) poses several important questions such as what prototypes do residents use to understand tourism and its impact? What visual images do residents have when they talk about tourism either to researchers or to others in their communities? In fact, an understanding of these issues from the community cultural base should have been considered as an essential prerequisite in achieving effective participatory design and process.

In summary, the complexity outlined thus far suggests that re-conceptualising multiple interests and identities within communities is critical in meeting the formidable challenges facing community-based tourism planning efforts.

2.4.2 Community Stakeholder and Representation

In an absence of a well-grounded theory and practical model for the above arguments, the fundamental questions will endure: that is '*how to identify* and actively *involve* all those persons who can in fact affect, and be affected by, the proposed tourism development?' Sautter and Leisen (1999) assert that such a position is similar to the underlying premise of stakeholders⁴ theory. Based on the work of Freeman (1984), Sautter and Leisen (op cit) have laid a preliminary groundwork in constructing a stakeholder's map in tourism field. A clear identification of tourism stakeholders themselves is problematic however. According Robson and Robson (1996: 535), 'it appears that each stakeholder, other than end-users, will have its own unique group of stakeholders, thus the list of potential stakeholders for any one given player in the tourism industry is almost endless'. To redress this tension, the earlier work by Sewell and Phillip (1979) is relevant, suggesting that planners need to make some tradeoffs and analytical decision on which community segments should be consulted on what issues, and for what objectives? A systematic method of identifying a relevant group of stakeholders and drawing representatives from them therefore becomes paramount.

⁴ According to Freeman (1984:46), ' (a) stakeholder in an organisation is (by definition) any group or individual who can affect, or is affected, by the achievement of the organisation's objectives".

Haywood (1988) identified a wide variety of institutional and system based obstacles to fuller representation in the planning process. These include:

- Extensive bureaucratic organisations across diverse levels exist in connection with tourism.
- Comprehensive tourism planning for most communities is non-existent.
- Public participation may be viewed as unnecessary, unwieldy, time consuming, and an idealistic dream.
- Industry may view a more comprehensive approach to planning, one that is more responsible to the society, as a threat, if the recommendations mean adding to the cost of doing business.
- Officials from centres of decision making may not be interested in encouraging representational democracy.

2.4.3 Community Readiness

Community 'readiness' in terms of tourism knowledge, resources, and commitment is an important factor that influences the success of a participatory approach (Bourke and Luloff, 1996). Assuming that some level of community readiness is necessary, the literature reviewed showed that it remains to be determined *how* and *when* the community is ready to participate in planning. To date, there appears to be two competing views to this matter.

On the one hand, the advocates of a self-emerging community naturally argue against the *paternalistic* nature of participatory tourism planning and development. In this regard, it is argued that genuine participatory approaches require that the responsibility for directing change lies with the people themselves, not with an outside organisation or change agency (Vasudevarao and Chakrapani, 1997). In other words, central to community-driven planning is an explicit recognition that outsiders *cannot* judge the perceptions, preferences or priorities of host communities. All necessary changes will emerge from within the community themselves.

On the other hand, tourism literature also suggests that it is too naive to argue that local communities are readily self-emerging and evolving toward more self-governing programmes. This tension appears most acute within the developing world context where the community capacity and their readiness to participate are more constrained and, worse, when the communities feel so themselves. A case in point is found in Timothy's (1999) study where Javanese perceived that they should not be involved in planning because they felt a sense of inadequacy in terms of tourism knowledge. Tosun (2000) also postulates that in the developing world, planners lack expertise on how to incorporate community participation into planning. This plight seems to be ongoing and kept hampering the effectiveness of participatory programmes in developing countries (ibid).

The challenge highlighted by these perspectives is to find a model for overcoming the above-mentioned obstacles to community participation. Several

recurring methods were found in the literature. These include empowerment⁵, training, partnership, motivation, building awareness and persuasion (Din, 1993, Jamal and Getz, 1995, Timothy, 1999). In the tourism context, the practical implications of these methods have been explored insufficiently hence their effectiveness remains to be determined. Nevertheless, an important clue drawn from this point is that moving towards more participatory tourism planning should be viewed as a *process*, which requires the involvement of, and willingness to change from, a wide range of people, not least including public sector planners and managers, particularly at the local level (Godfrey, 1998). This argument is valid if one recognises that those who feel inadequate and powerless, or that those have little or no control over their future, are less likely to become active agents of change through participation in community development. It is argued that community-based intervention strategies are therefore essential.

Paradoxically, this reiteration implies that there is an urgent call for a more government intervention strategies earmarked specifically for community capacity building. Mowforth and Munt (1998) articulate clearly the necessity of such intervention,

'while it is important that ideas for, and control of, tourism developments should come from within the community, it is also important that local community can make use of, and benefit from, the assistance of national

⁵ Empowerment means "the process by which people, organisations and communities gain mastery over their lives" (Rappaport, 1984) or "a social-action process that promotes the participation of people, organisations, and communities towards the goals of increased individual and community control, political efficacy, improved quality of community life and social justice" (Wallerstein, 1992).

government resources to help establish and co-ordinate their ideas and schemes. This is particularly necessary where local communities may lack the base of resources, skills and finances required. Hence, a partnership arrangement may often be more suitable than a community attempting to do everything entirely from within its own human, physical and financial resources' (p.257).

As noted, enlisting community participation should be viewed as a step-by-step process that expands as communities gain trust and mastery in the process and discover how they can make a contribution. Consequently, a more meaningful and greater participation from the community can be achieved. Adapting such a community empowerment perspective to tourism planning is a daunting challenge, because it requires tourism planners to consider major changes in the way they envisage *the tourism planning processes and goals*, where they direct their interventions and how they work with communities, as well as how they develop, and deploy limited tourism funding.

2.4.4 Government Roles and Support: Seeking the Change Agent or Convenor

The previous section espouses the crucial role of government in promoting participatory planning. It has also been identified in the literature that for co-operative activities to be successful there is a need for a legitimate 'change agent' that could facilitate effectively the participatory programme (Jamal and Getz 1995, Jantararat and Williams 1998). The complex nature of participatory planning, and the diverse nature of tourism and tourism product, are key justifications for a strong need of such a support from local and national government. As the literature noted, a major

component of the tourism product is public goods, which must be shared among every party in the system (see Leiper, 1979). For this system to work effectively, the tangible elements and intangible services, offered by all involved industries, need to be complimented by the country's infrastructure, public services, any other related public services, and the attitudes of local communities. The success of tourist businesses is dependent largely upon the wider social and natural environments in which they operate.

Traditionally, public sector planners are responsible for preparing policy statements, developing destination-marketing strategies, controlling development within the local planning system, and providing tourism information. It is governments that typically dominate tourism planning affairs and possess the mandate and potential power to direct the growth and development of tourism. And it is largely through governments that tourism-related investments and overseas aid as well as international policy pressures are agreed and channelled. Community participation advocates therefore cannot ignore the activities and approach undertaken by the government and/or government mandated tourism organisations⁶. Despite this fact, the literature on the subject discussing the government's role as this 'catalyst' is limited (e.g. WTO, 1979; Pearce, 1992).

⁶ Godfrey and Clarke (2000:50) point out that there is no perfect prototype of a tourism organisation and association to suit each and every destination. Indeed, the range of names used to describe government mandated tourism-related organisation is diverse, for instance tourism board, association, tourism authority, and tourism bureau.

As mentioned previously, communities may vary in their capacity or readiness to participate in tourism planning activities. Community mobilisation may not occur without a mandate, organisational base, or government support. According to Beeker et al. (1998), this is particularly true in a community without a strong identified leader, mature community-based organisations, and a history of successful problem solving. Hence community mobilisation may not be possible without a prior government investment in community development: creating new networks, strengthening existing networks and community institutions, motivating and training community members to lead and participate effectively. Both Tosun (2000) and Timothy (1999) found that there seems to be a lack of communication between communities and government bodies. This results in maintenance of a 'knowledge gap' and isolation of the local community from the tourism development process. The fundamental problem, as Tosun (2000) poses, is that inevitably there are obstacles associated with the public administration being centralised and too bureaucratic to respond to local public needs. This indicates a need for a major change in the way policy makers work with communities.

Jamal and Getz (1995) proposed that national tourism organisations might act as a convenor of collaborative projects. This is because these organisations tend to have been formally established and possess the following characteristics; legitimacy, expertise, resources, plus authority. Jantararat and Williams's study (1998) also supports this position. They examined the roles of Tourism Authority of Thailand -TAT (a national tourism organisation) as a convenor in the development of an 'Amazing

Thailand' campaign. It was found that the proposed collaborative campaign was widely accepted because TAT was perceived to have expertise and designated mandate from the government. The presence of such an organisation is vital in playing proactive roles, namely bringing stakeholders to the table, constructively exploring their differences of opinion, and to assisting the search for common solutions or to identifying necessary trade-offs and compromises. They are therefore seen as an important mechanism for the promotion of participatory planning. This point also indicates that one of their essential roles is to find effective and efficient ways in involving all sectors and constituencies in the planning activities. As discussed previously, it is complex yet crucial to select the right community stakeholders and draw representatives from all those stakeholders. Their roles in tourism planning and marketing, specifically the approach used to promote broad-based community participation need to be further explored.

2.4.5 Power Relations - Elitist and Pluralist Views

From the review of the literature, and the author's critical observation, it is found that tourism research relating to the relationships between tourism development and local power structures remains deficient (Reed, 1997, Mowforth and Munt, 1998). With an exception of Reed's (1997) work, the discussions appear to be unstructured and not thoroughly analysed. She points out that 'community tourism analysts tend to assume, often implicitly, that the planning and policy process is a *pluralistic* one in which people have equal access to economic and political resources' (p.567). In

reality, however, a limited number of tourism stakeholders still tend to exercise political power and have control over the future of community and tourism development. The elitist paradigm is still hard to overcome.

Drawing from interorganisational studies on collaboration within the field of organisational behaviour, Jamal and Getz (1995) outlined actions/steps that should be undertaken in a collaboration process for community-based tourism. This framework recognises the unbalanced power issues. It is suggested that a suitable convenor is needed at the very early stage to balance power differences. The authors posit that an organisation such as local authority or local government could act as a convenor. Reed (1997) however is more cautious, arguing that reliance solely on local authorities to convene power relations may be misguided as these authorities have their own agendas and may not always act neutrally. In an absence of well described theoretical and practice models for community inclusiveness, community representativeness, and community readiness, how to manage the power relations in order to achieve parity in participatory planning remains unclear.

2.4.6 Interim Summary

The literature reviewed identified several tensions in achieving participatory planning. It indicates strongly that participatory planning requires not only just new techniques, but also new ways of thinking about political, social, economic and environmental goals. Whilst the theoretical arguments for participatory tourism

development are difficult to challenge, the reality is that effective community participation cannot be achieved easily. Limits and obstacles of the participatory tourism planning can be summarised as follows:

- ◆ The performance of participatory development strategies is not encouraging and authentic participation (Arnstein's 'citizen power') seldom occurs.
- ◆ There are obstacles associated with the public administration being centralised and too bureaucratic to respond to local needs.
- ◆ There is a lack of communication between communities and decision-makers. This results in an increased knowledge gap and isolation of the local community from the tourism development process.
- ◆ There exists a lack of awareness of consequences of tourism development in the local community and this is worsened by lack of opportunities for local people to take part in the decision-making process.
- ◆ There is a lack of expertise on how to incorporate community participation in planning.

The conclusion is that the establishment of appropriate process, criteria, and structures is essential in the process of undertaking a participatory planning approach. It is important to note that the above limits and obstacles confronting tourism planners are generic and could also be found in any planning situation. As literature indicated, tourism is one of many activities calling for greater participation. Therefore, finding way for greater local participation in tourism planning should be viewed as a major focus for democratisation. Moving toward participatory planning in tourism context is

arguably even more challenging. The important questions which need to be addressed can be summarised as follows;

(1) *Who are the affected community or communities?* Community divisions (an assessment of existing community structures and knowledge, and the composition of community or communities) need to be further explored. An understanding of this issue will help identify who should participate in what issue? Furthermore, it may lay a significant ground for addressing the question of what needs to be done to prepare communities in order to achieve a more meaningful participation from them.

(2) *Who are tourism stakeholders?* The literature has led to the conclusion that identifying tourism stakeholders is problematic. Specifically, 'local' tourism resources have national and international standing as tourism attractants. This means that national and international firms or organisations also have a 'stake', and in most cases have strong 'capitalised' interests, in the development of tourism at a local level. 'Local' community participation in such multifaceted development is therefore a complex issue.

(3) *Who should select stakeholders?* Finding an answer to this challenging question rests in an ability to redress the unbalanced power relations impediment. It is suggested here that part of the issues lies in the ineffective institutional framework and inadequacy of governance tools. Good governance and sound public management are preconditions for the implementation of community based tourism development. These preconditions include efforts to ensure an ethical and more transparent government process, as well as decision-making practices sufficiently open to citizens.

(4) Who should act as a promoter/convenor of the participatory planning? It has been argued that government support and intervention is necessary. Activities such as choosing representatives of relevant entities within the community, selecting issues to be considered and constant communication with the wider community need to be undertaken systematically. The literature also indicated that to assume that community empowerment will emerge from within the communities is misleading. Tourism planners therefore need to first create a stronger local body (i.e. respectable local government officer or local resident). It is argued that government intervention in this matter is a vital steppingstone for improving community participation because governments typically dominate tourism planning affairs and possess the mandate and potential power to control development within the local planning system.

(5) What kind of methods should be used to attain effective and efficient public participation? Tradeoffs between depth and breadth of the participation need to be made. The status of the community (as addressed in question 1), current developmental issues, the goals of the participation, and stages of the planning should shape this compromise.

The ideology of community participation and the challenges discussed offer fundamental criteria for designing a framework for an evaluation of community-based planning. These criteria are organised into five themes for further advancement of the existing body of knowledge (as shown in table 3 overleaf).

Table 3: Key Features of Community Participation in Tourism Planning:

Evaluative Criteria – a checklist

Criteria	Description
Goals of Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Democracy ✓ Projects' acceptability ✓ Equally distributed benefits
(1) Who are the affected community or communities? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community Context • Community Readiness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ History and Structure ✓ Unity & Solidarity ✓ Tourism Awareness and knowledge ✓ Participants must acknowledge need for the participatory planning. ✓ Participation must be voluntary. ✓ Identification of community leadership Roles ✓ Community institutional capacity
(2) Who are tourism stakeholders?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Identifying planning goals and issues ✓ Defining affected stakeholders ✓ Drawing representatives
(3) Who should select stakeholder?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Legitimacy ✓ Power relations ✓ Conflict resolution ✓ Negotiation
(4) Who should act as a promoter/convenor of the participatory planning? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Government support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Empowerment and Community Building ✓ Participants must be provided sufficient and timely training, funding and information. ✓ Maintain communication with constituents. ✓ Institution arrangements to facilitate participation
(5) What kind of methods should be used to attain effective and efficient public participation? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participatory Design • Methods/Trade offs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Timely notification of opportunities to participate must be given. ✓ Tourism related industries/entities must be committed to the participatory process. ✓ The number of participants or representatives must be manageable. ✓ Defining the need for resources of the participation. ✓ A realistic timeframe and resource must be set. ✓ Selection of issues to be considered ✓ Media Relations

2.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has noted that the early traditions of tourism planning were dominated by economic and marketing ideas. The prevailing marketing approach was

illustrated in several related themes and models introduced or advanced to pursue growth orientation during that time. Tourism planning theory and method relating to academic concerns over impacts of tourism development and growth has led to a call for better approach for tourism planning. But a practical implication of how to shift the dominant marketing focus to fit into a new planning paradigm is still in its infancy. Despite the fact that marketing was and will remain significant, it is surprising to find that marketing theories with an expansion of social and cultural consideration have not been well considered in tourism planning. While the participatory planning approach is being advanced and accepted as a more adaptive form of planning to minimise negative tourism impacts, scholars assert that tourism marketing is lagging behind, still advocating the conventional development - *boosterism*. The fundamental question of how marketing can contribute to the integrated goal of tourism planning needs to be examined. Given this gap in both the literature and practice, this research will address this specific research question on the relationship between marketing and community-based planning.

Key elements of community based planning have been summarised. Dissatisfaction with traditional planning practices suggests a need for a more balanced form between centralised planning at national level and decentralised planning at local level and to integrate considerations of both levels into broader community development objectives where social benefits can be generated. This chapter has provided that background and identified a significant evolution in community based tourism planning approaches. The literature indicates that a more balanced form of

tourism planning requires greater community involvement and environmental sensitivity. Difficulties in achieving greater community participation have also been identified. It can be concluded that participatory planning paradigm is multi-dimensional. To move the enquiry forward, further examination from social, cultural and political aspects embedded within the community needs to be incorporated into the research.

The following chapter will review the existing literature on marketing in general and tourism marketing in particular. This re-examination will illustrate further the important gap between the participatory planning and the current tourism-marketing approach.

CHAPTER 3 TOURISM MARKETING: CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES AND ISSUES

3.1 Introduction

The roles of marketing within the evolution of tourism planning thought have been outlined in chapter two. This chapter aims to elaborate on contemporary tourism marketing issues. The first section addresses current debate and criticism about the relationship between tourism marketing and planning. Underlying many of these criticisms are social concerns about an economic system built on the profit motive and self-interest of tourism marketing practices. Tensions and pragmatic issues in applying the emerging responsible marketing approach to tourism are discussed.

The following sections review both fundamental theory of marketing and various themes relating to societal marketing models. This examination is to elucidate the potential contributions of marketing concepts and techniques to tourism planning, particularly in relation to community based approaches.

3.2 Relationship between Marketing and Planning of Destinations⁷ -Tensions and Pragmatic Issues-

As noted in the previous chapter, marketing techniques were valued and used dominantly in the early tourism planning. Over the years, however, tourism has grown in both scale and extent. With this growth, academics and environmental critics alike have shown numerous cases and instances whereby communities, societies, and their welfare have been compromised for economic growth. Such an uneven consideration is believed to be supported by ill-equipped marketing strategies. Historically, marketing has acquired a critical image since the early 1960s. As early as 1967, Farmer, in an article on the techniques of the marketing practitioner, wrote that,

“For the past 6000 years the field of marketing has been thought of as made up of fast buck artists, con men, wheeler dealers, and shoddy goods distributors. Too many of us have been ‘taken’ by the tout or con man; and all of us have been prodded into buying all sorts of ‘things’ we did not need, and which we found later on we did not even want” (p.3).

Today, a similar distrust of marketing practice remains prevalent. Prothero and Fitchett (2000) depict this conception, contending that,

‘consumerism and the operation of markets have created the human subject as a desiring being whose craving for more commodities and the latest goods has consistently undermined the welfare of the environment’ (p. 47).

With a rapidly growing tourism industry, it is not surprising to find similar commentaries on tourism marketing being a significant contributor to the global

⁷It is difficult to define a tourism destination. Traditionally a destination is defined by its geographical boundaries. However a destination might be perceived differently from a supply-side view and a visitor's view. For example, the tourist may perceive Phuket Island as a single destination, whereas within Phuket Island there may be several single businesses or units, which each has an interest in attracting tourists to their particular area or business.

capitalist society. From the review of the evolution of tourism planning perspectives (as outlined in chapter two), attempts have been made to mitigate the effects of tourism development. Attention has been drawn particularly to overcoming the fact that host communities have to bear the bulk of tourism developmental costs, whilst the benefits have too often fallen into a relatively few hands. Factors such as social and environmental pressures and the increasing call for involvement of host communities are keys behind the changing face of tourism planning. Together these pose new challenges to both destination planners and marketers. Tourism development and planning is increasingly seen as a part of, and therefore needs to be integrated into, overall strategic mechanisms to facilitate local development. Nevertheless, questions are increasingly being asked as to whether or not current tourism marketing practices are actually inimical to the pursuit of such an integrated goal. The review of the literature in chapter two also indicates a 'missing link' between the contemporary tourism planning approach and a prevailing growth-oriented marketing focus.

Buhalis (2000) reviewed destination-marketing literature, suggesting that in relation to tourism planning literature, the examination of destination marketing remains inadequate. This review also captured an apparent difference between the marketing and planning tourism literature at both a conceptual and practical level. As noted, the tourism-marketing literature concentrates on increasing visitation and treats tourism like any other commodity. In contrast, tourism planning concentrates more on the impacts of tourism and takes a strong stand on a more balanced form, where environmental and socio-cultural issues are heeded in the planning process. However

Burns (1999) has counterbalanced this view by pointing out that the existing tourism planning literature tends to ignore the market dynamics and the requirements of entrepreneurs. From this point of view, there seems to be an urgent need to re-conceptualise the relationship between these two approaches.

From a practical perspective, too often, local leaders and businesses, with the assistance of state tourism agencies, march forward with promotional strategies to attract visitors to their destination areas with little concern and/or effort placed on the impacts these visitors will create. Take, for instance, the efforts in tourism planning and/or marketing offered by National Tourism Organisations (NTOs) in Asia. Of the 100% allocation funds spent annually, over 90% go directly into so-called marketing strategies, which overly emphasise promotional activities (WTO, 1996). Haywood (1990), Choy (1991), Ryan (1991), March (1994), Hall (1999), Buhalis (2000) all hold concern for the overemphasis of promotional aspects within tourism marketing.

The promotional approach, as Buhalis (2000, p.98) asserts, 'fails to recognise the unique needs and limitations of each destination as well as their particular geographical, environmental and socio-cultural characteristics'. Elsewhere, Payne and Dimanche (1996) observed, tourism development is too often planned and marketed without consideration of the local environments or community's needs and wants. In this context, it can be argued that tourism marketing has functioned *primarily for the benefit of the tourist* and its form and dynamics have principally been driven by the industry itself. Meanwhile, the local community has found themselves excluded from

the decision making process, and from full and active participation in the growth of tourism in their localities. The potential to improve quality of life and provide the broadest range of benefits to community is compromised by the profit-driven goals and objectives of tourism organisations and to a large extent by the nation economic development agenda.

Whilst several tourism scholars argue against the current *practice* of tourism marketing, they also indicate the potential complimentary nature of marketing *theory* towards social well being. They explain that whilst generic marketing theories have been well tested in a range of commercial situations, *a lack of* researches to advance our understanding of tourism marketing may, to a certain extent, result in the existing misunderstandings, fallacies and malpractice. Earlier observation is consistent with a later debate relating to firms within the tourism industry whereby Calantone and Mazanec (1991) explain the paucity and underutilisation of marketing as a ‘management discipline’ in tourism. Unlike the rapid growth of many large-scale commercial service operations, tourism scholars observed that the tourism industry has been slow to apply the broader principles of marketing theory. According to Calantone and Mazanec (ibid), tourism in fact is one of the last industries to experience the change from a sellers' to a buyers' market.

Ryan (1991) concludes that “marketing has been interpreted narrowly as being concerned with advertising and promotion and possibly to some extent with price...”, adding, “Murphy argues strongly for the need of communities to be involved in

tourism planning but generally omits the role of marketing within product development” (p. 104). Similarly, March (1994) has indicated that marketing’s contribution to tourism has been dismal. Based on the work of Danne et al (1988), March pointed out further that from 1974-1986, only 10 marketing articles were published in *Annals of Tourism Research*. Marketing was the least represented area compared with Geography (71), Economics (47), and Anthropology (46). This finding was later supported by a review in *Tourism Management* from 1984-1994; no issue has been devoted to the relationship between tourism and marketing (ibid.). March added, “when the issue of marketing has been raised in the academic tourism literature the term is usually narrowly defined or corrupted” (p.412). Furthermore, March (1994) contends that the adoption of marketing principles within the tourism industry, compared with other service industries, has been undervalued and misrepresented by tourism policy makers and practitioners alike. The author then questions “why has marketing been so misused as a term and by corollary why it has been under-utilised as a management discipline?”(p. 412).

One reason why so few tourism firms and organisations fully understand or practice ‘broad-based’ marketing is the existence of organisational barriers that continue to hinder the successful implementation of marketing and customer-focused strategies. From a tourism firm’s perspective, such barriers include: an incomplete understanding of the marketing concept; the conflict between short term and long term financial goals; an overemphasis on short-term measures of top management

performance; and, top management's own values and priorities concerning the relative importance of customers and the firm's other publics (Webster, 1988, Ryan, 1991).

Trends in marketing are moving toward a more integrated and sustainable approach (Ruddy and Flanagan, 2000). This interest has led to an increased research on social responsibility, marketing and quality-of-life, marketing ethics, green or environmental marketing, which alert organisations to be more responsible for the well being of society at large. The key concept of this discussion starts from the necessity of *combining* profit making for any organisation with sustainable environmental management and social quality for society at large.

An examination of the above proposed combination is critical and challenging to tourism marketing simply because the nature and scope of tourism industry *per se* does not limit itself to the participants in a business transaction, service providers, and consumers. The industry's operations inevitably affect all of society. A very significant component of the resources exploited by the tourism industry is, in fact, drawn from public goods. Negative outcomes from tourism development indicate that market mechanisms alone are not sufficient to manage the industry responsibly. Middleton (1997) indicates that to achieve responsible marketing, the issue of regulation versus self-regulation need to be addressed. The literature review indicate further that a balance between tourism and the environment – social, cultural and especially physical – would never be achieved solely through market forces (Choy, 1991), or even through self-regulation concepts such as green marketing and socially

responsible programmes. From a business perspective, strong competitive and profit-driven market forces tend to hinder self-regulatory methods. The extraordinary complexity of the tourism industry as well as the predominance of small businesses involved in it has also been reported as other impediments. For these reasons, several authors advocate that regulation is required if a more responsible tourism marketing and planning is to be implemented successfully (Middleton, 1997, Tregear et al., 1997, Tonner, 2000).

The above arguments lead to the conclusion that governmental interventions are necessary in both tourism planning and marketing. It is the governments who formulate national policy, and control development through regulatory process. They often take on a destination marketing role. Nonetheless, the complex nature of tourism makes optimising and balancing the economic, environmental and social benefits with business profitability a marketing and planning dilemma for governments and any organisation involved.

In addition, under a competitive environment, all organisations are subject to internal pressures toward expansion and externalisation of costs. Tonner (2000) posits that a market-based solution to environmental and social problems could be feasible if, but only if, environmental and social costs could be translated to the market as prices. Perhaps then the most important driving force for socially responsible marketing approach to take place effectively requires a genuine demand from the 'consumer'. In other words, will the consumers be willing to pay a higher price to

support an organisation, which is highly socially responsible. Unfortunately, in the past decades, consumers may show a high awareness of the environmental aspects of holiday, but not when booking; hence the discrepancy between attitude and behaviour of consumers does exist (Tonner, 2000). These contradictions are highlighted by the fierce market competition within the tourism industry, for instance, airline deregulation has resulted in the lowering of prices and 'value for money' tour packages. In reality, many holidaymakers are on the lookout for a cheap trip; hence 'value for money' is a key factor in purchasing decision. Another important question then becomes whether one can alter consumers' behaviour so that they 'demand' and patronise only services, which are provided by organisations practicing societal marketing (this concept will be discussed in the next section).

Many authors are considering the ideology of consumption itself as a root cause of the environment and social denigration (Kilbourn et al. 1997, Prothero and Fitchett, 2000). Kilbourne et al. (1997) argue that our global society believes that exponentially increasing levels of consumption provides the basis for happiness and/or quality of life. The authors then assert that 'transmogrification of consumption values from consuming to live, into living to consume is the mainstay of the marketing academy,...the marketing concept is based on living to consume" (p.6). The sustainable consumption literature argues against such practices and naturally supports the quest for consumers to consume less. From this point of view, one may argue that the best trip is the one, which is not undertaken at all but this seems unrealistic or inevitable.

One important conclusion drawn from the literature reviewed is that marketing and/or market planning is a subject about which we know relatively little in tourism despite the plethora of calls for more research related to the topic. Although market planning has been recognised as an integral part of the overall tourism planning process, relatively few *empirical* studies have been undertaken on the details of marketing planning and its execution particularly within community based planning approach. Despite increasing social concern about and the call for more community participation, research dealing with these issues in relation to participatory tourism marketing is virtually non-existent, with the exception of a recent study by King, McVey and Simmons (2000), where community consultation was conducted prior to, and throughout, the development of tourism market planning. This innovative approach was used in seeking to achieve an appropriate balance between community aspirations and marketing within the planning framework. It is essential to refine further these techniques and utilise systematic marketing processes to concurrently educate, and be informed by, the community. If one contemplates why tourism is developed in the first place, one is led inevitably to the conclusion that community should be identified as the primary beneficiaries, that is 'primary customer' for whom marketing should concern.

Much of the conceptual theory and empirical methodology that required for a more integrated community-based planning approach is not new. But a renewed focus by tourism marketers to incorporate the understanding of community-driven

perspectives provides an important step forward in attaining the compatibility of tourism marketing with broader community-driven tourism development. In particular, this research hopes to re-conceptualise the links between the marketing concept and community-driven tourism planning approach. The specific aim of this research will not only attempt to identify strategic aspects (*what can be done*), but it will also understand the operations (*what is being done*) of local tourism planning in a developing country. To proceed, a review of the marketing concept, which will be discussed below, is vital.

3.3 An Overview of the Marketing Concept

3.3.1 Fundamental Concepts

The last 50 years we have witnessed an expansion in academic and practitioner's interest in the theory and practice of marketing (see Hooley et al, 1990, Harris 1999). Traditionally, marketing has concerned itself with the facilitation and enhancement of marketplace transactions or exchanges. To achieve market exchanges, there has been a heightened academic awareness of the importance of an orientation towards consumer's needs and wants. From the conceptual viewpoint, the marketing concept provides a straightforward foundation upon which this philosophy develops (Kaldor, 1971). Bell and Emory (1971), who summarise the work of several marketing authors, define the marketing concept by addressing it in three parts:

- *Customer Orientation* - Knowledge of the customer requires a thorough understanding of his/her needs, wants, and behaviour, which should be the focal point of all marketing actions. It implies the development of products and services to meet those needs.
- *Integrated Effort* – An effort of the entire firm must be integrated, specifically the integration of marketing function with all other functional departments. Such an integrated effort will enhance the firm's total effectiveness.
- *Profit Direction* - The marketing concept is intended to make money for the company by focussing attention on profit rather than sales volume.

The above three-part definition is generally accepted as being the core themes or central tenets of the traditional marketing concept (see for example, Lusch et al., 1976; Stampfl, 1978; Arndt, 1980; McGee and Spiro, 1988; Kohli and Jaworski, 1990; and Harris, 1999).

The term 'marketing' orientation and 'market' orientation have been used interchangeably in describing the *implementation* of the marketing concept. In other words, the marketing concept is considered a philosophy of doing business that puts the customer in the centre of the firm's thinking about strategy and operation, whereas a marketing orientation is considered to be the implementing guideline of the marketing concept (Harris, 1999). Kohli and Jaworski (1990) defined market orientation as, "the organisation wide generation of market intelligence pertaining to current and future customer needs, dissemination of the intelligence across

departments, and organisation wide responsiveness to it” (p.6). The generation and dissemination of this information is undertaken to understand completely customers’ needs and wants. Indeed, it is arguable that customer has become paramount and that the satisfaction of customer needs viewed as the leitmotif of organisations’ success and profitability. In academic terms, this is reflected in the parallel growth of ‘consumer behaviour’ within the marketing discipline. Since the 1950s customer orientation has been a fundamental concept of marketing (Kotler, 1994).

Marketing literature suggested further that marketing success is more likely when customer groups are well defined and the market segmentation and method are selected. A large part of marketing literature has been devoted to finding the best instrument for market segmentation (see Madrigal and Kahle, 1994, Zins, 1998). Understanding the needs and wants of the selected segment of customers is vital since their tastes will dictate product development, pricing, place (distribution), and promotion (communication). These aspects are known as a ‘traditional’ *marketing mix* or *4Ps*. Overtime, the goods marketing versus services marketing debate has led scholars to broaden this traditional mix to three additional ‘3Ps’: people, physical evidence, and process (Fisk, Brown and Bitner, 1993).

It is important to note that although the basic marketing issues encompass complex sub-problems and/or sub-disciplines, this research will focus mainly on examining the fundamental marketing concept and the extension of its key concept in response to the increasing concern with environmental and social well being.

Growing research and interest within the extended concept of marketing is evident. Marketing scholars now realised that attention needs to be given to the internal, as well as the external customer of any business. In fact, a key challenge for the achievement of an emerging marketing concept is to identify carefully stakeholders and include them into the marketing framework as a new form of “customer”. Various commentaries on these approaches and issues have appeared in marketing literature. The key dimensions of which are summarised below.

3.3.2 Micro versus Macro Marketing

The fundamental marketing concept emerged and was viewed initially as a micro issue whereby a business or firm is the main unit of focus. In recent years, however, the scope and domain of social problems relating to the marketing activities have induced several scholars to consider marketing issues from a different scale perspective. The discussion of differences between the concept of micro and macro marketing was recognised as Fisk (1981:2) stated in his invitation to participate in affairs of the Journal of Macromarketing,

“people largely ignorant of marketing as a social process make decisions on wide range of public and social policies on issues too broad to be resolved within the prevailing modes of marketing thought”.

Fisk’s remark and the publication of the Journal of Macromarketing have advanced a broader reflection of marketing activities in the wider societal context.

Moyer and Hutt (1978) describe, “the former (micromarketing) deals with small individual units, the latter (macromarketing) with aggregation” (p.5). They explain further, ‘generally, micromarketing activities are oriented toward the enterprise’s welfare, whereas the focus in macromarketing centres on society’s welfare” (p.5). Hunt (1981) offers a more comprehensive summary of the concept, suggesting that ‘macromarketing is a multi-dimensional construct and the complete specification should include the following:

*Macromarketing refers to the study of (1) **aggregative** marketing systems, (2) the impact and consequence of **aggregative** marketing systems on society, and (3) the impact and consequence of society on **aggregative** marketing systems (p.8). (Emphases added)*

It is commonly accepted that macromarketing has been distinguished from micromarketing on the basis of the level of aggregation of the units examined, the perspective of analysis, and the unit for which consequences are being examined (Goeke, 1987). Thus any related marketing programme, which affects a total marketing system, undertaken from the perspective of society, or which attempts to influence the consequences of marketing on a societal system is a macromarketing. Although marketing scholars made distinctions between these two concepts, they also point out that every marketing activity has both micro and macro complications (ibid.). Therefore, both micro and macromarketing considerations need to be incorporated into the planning decision.

For tourism, the marketing of destination also involves multilevel of planning and implementation. Thus a clear distinction of the ‘micro and macro’ marketing

concepts and identification of which of these two concepts is more appropriate when applied to planning and marketing a destination would be very helpful for the planners and marketers. For example, the tourism marketing approach undertaken by state tourism organisations at the national or destination level would be considered to fall into macromarketing, since their marketing programmes are designed to serve aggregates - tourism related organisations and constituencies. At the same time, these programmes generally rely heavily on an application of the marketing mix (4Ps or 7Ps), which has been advanced in micro-marketing activities. Selecting the right approach to use is therefore essential.

3.3.3 Societal Marketing: Marketing with a Social Dimension

The non-market effects (e.g. pollution, and natural and physical environment degradation), termed externalities, have long been borne by society, and marketers also have previously discussed and dealt with these as an external influence on the process and content of managerial decision making. However, over the past ten years, the interaction between marketing and environmental and social dimensions is becoming more conspicuous (Handelman and Arnold 1999). A case could be made that the evolving emphasis on social wellbeing, quality of life and societal marketing concept is a reaction to 'consumerism'- the demands of consumer groups for more accountability on the part of business (Menon and Menon, 1997).

Marketers now have realised that it is not enough for marketing-led businesses to be overly preoccupied with searching for ways to grow or develop in order to secure future profitability. There are some evidences that businesses have begun to incorporate non-market forces and effects into their strategies. Brown and Dacin (1997) find support for this contention, that is a firm regarded as socially responsible will have a more favourable corporate evaluation from consumers. This in turn leads to a more favourable evaluation of the firm's products. For example, Wal-Mart topped up \$100 billion in sales in 1996 as a result of "Bring it home-the U.S.A: its record of donations to community and family values" campaign (Fortune, 1997). Although many of the cases in which such strategies are adopted can also be criticised for selling the sign of being socially responsible and environmentalism while continuing to engage in ecologically and socially damaging practices, it can also illustrate that green and socially responsible issues can be communicated and are of concern to certain consumer segments.

Notions, such as social responsibility (Robin and Reidenbach, 1987), marketing ethics (Kennedy and Lawton, 1993), green marketing (Davis,1992), marketing and quality-of-life (Sirgy, 1996), cause-related marketing (Varadarajan and Menon, 1988), are now accepted as a business response to such non-market forces. Menon and Menon (1997) offer a different and interesting term in light of the same concept: "Enviropreneurial Marketing". Likewise, this term is used as being the process for formulating and implementing entrepreneurial and environmentally

beneficial marketing activities with the goal of creating revenue by providing exchanges that satisfy a firm's economic and social performance objectives.

Societal marketing provides a theoretical umbrella under which each of these concepts overlap and share different *degrees and dimensions* of their social concerns and activities. The core theme of these concepts is summarised as follows.

(a) Marketing Ethics

The existing literature on business and marketing ethics is extensive. It is reflected in the widespread discussions and research with respect to unethical practices of marketing activities such as advertising, personal selling, pricing, marketing research and international marketing (Davis, 1992, Kennedy and Lawton, 1993, Gundlach and Murphy, 1993). Ethics can be defined as a systematic attempt to make cohesive, rationale whole out of our individual and social moral experiences (Payne and Dimanche, 1996). The purpose of this attempt is to formulate rules to differentiate between good and bad human conduct. The status of the field has been summarised by several authors. Generally, four existing perspectives are highlighted:

- Admonitions to marketers to alter their behaviour to avoid government intervention and possible extinction;
- Codes of conduct designed to improve marketing practice
- Ethics as they apply to marketing in general and to specific areas of the profession; and

- Empirical work that has examined ethical issues in marketing research; unethical dimensions of social marketing; ethical beliefs of marketers; and categories of ethical problems; and students' perception of ethics in marketing

It is found in the literature that ethics have been analysed at different levels: individual, organisational, intra-organisational levels, and international levels (Rest, 1986; Trevino, 1986). At an individual level, research has identified the marketer's personal moral reasoning as a factor that would affect his/her decisions when faced with an ethical dilemma (see e.g. Hunt and Vitell, 1986, 1993). At a national level, Laczniak and Murphy (1993) identify the status of economic development as a factor which may prevent ethical behaviour, stating "many less developed countries, pressures on organisations to succeed are often more fierce than in a developed country setting. Under such intense, survivalist conditions, bribery, extortion, nepotism, and fraud may be considered necessary and essential modes of behaviour in order to assure continued organisational viability. Such behaviour is consistent with psychologist Abraham Maslow's famous hierarchy of needs, which suggests that the satisfaction of primary needs, such as economic survival and safety, precedes the satisfaction of "higher order" needs, which are secondary"(p. 216). The authors (ibid.) concluded that relative levels of economic development, along with the pressure on short-term profit, affect managerial ethical decision-making. They further explain that because of the lower level of economic development, firms will take actions (some unethical) in order to achieve primary needs such as financial improvements and

stability before placing emphasis on secondary needs such as corporate social responsibility.

At an international level, the level of development of marketing as a profession in different countries is another significant factor that affects ethical behaviours. Cohen, Pant and Sharp (1992) argue that the level of socio-economic development of a country influences the level of development of various professions. Thus, it is important to consider the availability of qualified marketers in a given country and the prevalence of professional attitude among these marketers. A lower level of development may result in less well-developed human capital. Since, managers are less likely to be trained in making decisions when faced with difficult situations, it will be much more challenging to get them to agree on a code of ethical behaviours.

(b) Cause-Related Marketing (CRM)

The principle of cause-related marketing (CRM) was traditionally perceived as a simple donation via commercial sponsorship of charities. Increasingly, contributions to social causes are extended, emphasising its function as a strategic marketing tool to achieve both social and corporate objectives (Smith and Higgins, 2000). Varadarajan and Menon (1988, p.60) define the concept as ‘the process of formulating and implementing marketing activities that are characterised by an offer from the firm to contribute a specified amount to a designated cause when customers engage in revenue-producing exchanges that satisfy organisational and individual objectives’. This means that corporate philanthropy is perceived as an altruistic act or ‘doing well

by doing good'. CRM therefore is not the same as corporate social responsibility. It is not based on any kind of responsibility but simply upon the desire to be good.

Critics however raise problems of the manipulation of recipients and of the exploitation of both the act and the recipient for the purposes of publicity (L'Etang, 1995; Smith and Higgins, 2000). For example, some companies can claim that they wish to be a 'good corporate' but then argue to shareholders that what they are doing is good business or prudentially inspired.

(c) Green marketing

Green marketing has gained wide acceptance among several companies as being a viable competitive strategy. As noted by Shrum, McCarty, and Lowrey (1995), the term "green" is often used interchangeably with "pro-environmental." Although there is no single definition of the concept (Dam and Apeldoorn, 1996), one typical definition describes "green marketing" as the practice of "...adopting resource conserving and environmentally-friendly strategies in all stages of the value chain" (Johri, and Sahasakmontri, 1998, p. 265). Many companies claim to be committed to green marketing in their marketing communications. To critics, the aim is partially to capture a sizable share of the large and growing market of environmentally conscious consumers. This is not surprising as the green market was estimated to include some 52 million households in the United States in 1995 (Ottman, 1993). The trend is also growing around the world. This desire for greener products, the green movement, is said to be spreading from the West to the Pacific Rim, Eastern Europe, Africa, and the

Middle East (Oyewole, 2001). Thus, it is understood why companies are adopting green marketing as a means of sustainable competitive advantage.

According to Oyewole (2001), in practicing green marketing, companies often embark on at least one of the following things: (i) using packaging and raw materials that are recyclable, reusable, photodegradable and/or biodegradable, (ii) pollution-free production processes, (iii) aerosol-free raw materials, (iv) pesticide-free farming, (v) anti-chemical methods of food preservation, (vi) less bulky packaging that uses less of the raw material, (vii) natural, as against synthetic fertilizers etc.

In brief, green marketing aims at the process of production, which claims to result in marketing products that are environmentally friendly. It seeks to provide consumers with products that meet their needs while at the same time, do not pollute, emit toxic waste, deface, or destroy the natural habitat.

(d) Marketing and Quality-of-life (QOL) concept

The impetus behind an emerging of QOL is the fact that many economists and sociologists grew increasingly dissatisfied with traditional economic measures (e.g., Gross National Product, Gross Domestic Product) (Sirgy, 1996). Consequently, social researchers argue for 'quality of life' as significant indicators of societal development, and therefore social measures of quality of life should be augmented to economic measures. QOL was first incorporated into marketing in the 70's. Based on QOL philosophy, the firm should not formulate marketing objectives strictly in terms of

financial-related criteria such as sales, profit, and/or market share. According to Sirgy (1996, p.243), QOL marketing objectives should encompass four key dimensions:

- Enhancement of a dimension of consumers' wellbeing by offering consumers an affordable product that facilitates healthy living and behaviour.
- Reduction in 'significant' negative side effects to the consumers associated with the marketing and/or use of the organisation's offering.
- Reduction in 'significant' negative side effects to publics (other than the consumers) associated with the marketing and/or use of the organisation's offering.
- Increases in long-term profitability

The QOL philosophy in marketing is highly consistent with marketing ethics. Sirgy (ibid.) posits that the primary mission of the QOL is to focus on a specific segment of society and attempt to develop products that not only satisfy the consumers within that segment, but also enhance a certain dimension of their well-being. The concept also advocates that by so doing, the environment as well as other publics will be sustained.

(e) Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Corporate social responsibility (CSR), also referred to as pro-social corporate endeavours (Murray and Vogel 1997) or corporate social performance (Turban and Greening 1997), has traditionally been conceptualised rather broadly as "the

managerial obligation to take action to protect and improve both the welfare of society as a whole and the interest of organisations" (Davis and Blomstrom 1975, p.6). Alternative perspectives on the role and place of companies in the broader social environment have engendered multiple conceptualisations of CSR, ranging from a purely traditional economic one (i.e., CSR as maximizing returns to shareholders; Zenisek, 1979) to, more recently, a comprehensive "proactive social responsiveness view" that articulates a company's long-term role in a dynamic social system (McGee 1998, p. 379). The latter societal view of CSR is adopted as the company's status and activities with respect to (i.e., responsiveness to) its perceived societal obligations. The concept appears to encompass the broadest social concern in relative to other contemporary marketing issues discussed above. For example, corporate adopting 'green' orientation can also make claims as being socially responsible.

Given the broad conceptualisation of CSR, it is not surprising that the domains of socially responsible behaviour are many and diverse. Some issues are clearly overlapping with the other themes discussed above. Based on the USA model, Sen and Bhattacharya (2001) refer to a comprehensive summary of the different CSR actions, which are contained in Socrates: The Corporate Social Ratings Monitor (Kinder, Lydenberg, Domini & Co. Inc. 1999). This database describes and rates more than 600 companies in terms of their CSR records. It reduces the CSR initiatives undertaken by these companies into six broad domains:

- (1) Community support (e.g., support of arts and health programs, educational and housing initiatives for the economically disadvantaged, generous/innovative giving),
- (2) Diversity (e.g., sex, race, family, sexual orientation, and disability - based diversity record and initiatives, or lack thereof, within and outside the firm),
- (3) Employee support (e.g., concern for safety, job security, profit sharing, union relations, employee involvement),
- (4) Environment (e.g., environment-friendly products, hazardous-waste management, use of ozone-depleting chemicals, animal testing, pollution control, recycling),
- (5) Non-U.S. operations (e.g., overseas labour practices [including sweatshops], operations in countries with human rights violations), and
- (6) Product (e.g., product safety, research and development/innovation, marketing/ contracting controversies, antitrust disputes).

The literature review depicted that the themes outlined thus far have their emphases on different aspects of being 'socially responsible'. They all can arguably be viewed as a subset of the societal marketing concept. This concept articulates the broad logic that marketers should balance three considerations in formulating and implementing marketing strategies: company profits, consumer needs and satisfactions and society's interests (Kotler, 1994). In other words, a concern for dual impacts of marketing strategies - those of the environment on the organisation and of the organisation on the environment- is shared and central to these concepts. Viewing

each individual firm as part of the societal activity, it is hoped that in aggregation (macro level) these individual firms can produce greater positive social consequences.

3.3.4 Social Marketing

Another important aspect of marketing is known as social marketing. The key feature that differentiates societal marketing (marketing with a social dimension) from social marketing is that the former is discussed in terms of an extension of the traditional marketing while the latter is viewed as an applicability of generic marketing to achieve social goals. Kotler and Zaltman first introduced social marketing in 1971. These authors originally defined the concept as “influencing the acceptability of social ideas through product planning, pricing, communication, distribution, and marketing research” (Kotler and Zaltman, 1971). Since then, the term has been established in the vocabulary of private non-profit organisations, government agencies, and universities. More recently, this concept was referred to as “the application of commercial marketing technologies to the analysis, planning, execution, and evaluation of programmes designed to influence the voluntary behaviour of target audiences in order to improve their personal welfare and that of society” (Andreason, 1995:7).

As noted, the concept is based on a traditional commercial marketing concept. It utilises market segmentation, consumer research, product development and testing, and communication, to maximise the target adopters’ response (Kotler and Roberto,

1989). However, the key characteristic distinguishing social marketing from commercial one is its purposes. Its ideological concern lies in the primary emphasis on individual and social well being as opposed to a monetary bottom line. In other words, bringing about life-improving social change is the challenge and goals of social marketing (Ibid, 1989). This is evident in an extensive use of the model and approach to distribute condoms in 3rd world countries e.g. Thailand, in AIDS/HIV prevention, and in child/infant nutrition (Oglethorpe, 1995).

A central principle of the social marketing mindset is a commitment to understand the consumer and to design products to satisfy consumers' wants and needs. This understanding is considered essential in the development of effective and competitive marketing programme. As Kotler and Andreason (1991) note, a consumer orientation assumes that marketers are willing to *modify* the programme or product to fit consumers' wants and needs. The concept reminds social planners to consider their competitors thoroughly. In other words, consumers or 'target adopters' always have behavioural choices. In these cases, the product's benefits, or the behaviours being promoted, must be more highly valued than the benefits provided by the competition.

3.3.5 Stakeholders: Primary and Secondary Consumers

The number and range of stakeholders included in the marketing planning process have therefore been extended within environmental and societal marketing philosophies. These require that the objectives of the organisation, consumers, society

and the natural environment, should be achieved in harmony (Polonsky, 1995). These emerging marketing paradigms (as discussed in previous sections) have give rise to a reassessment and redefinition of 'customers' and being 'customer oriented', and locate firms back into their wider operating environments.

Marketing scholars have been increasingly recognising that other key stakeholders need to be incorporated into the planning decision (Greenley and Foxall, 1998). As noted, stakeholder identification and management however have been found, so far, to be fraught with practical problems, especially in the tourism context (Robson and Robson, 1996). For not only can stakeholders be classified as internal or external, they can also be classified as primary and secondary. According to Thomlison (1992), primary stakeholders are those who have formal, official, or contractual relationships and have a direct and necessary influence upon the organisation. Secondary stakeholders are diverse and include those who are not directly engaged in the organisation's economic activities but are able to exert influence on, or are affected by the organisation. It is believed that a clear identification of all affected parties enables the strategic planner to examine the anticipated consequences of marketing programmes as they affect these differing groups. It is also recognised in the literature that managers or planners simply cannot attend to all actual or potential claims of stakeholders and this in turn requires a focus on priorities for managerial attention (Mitchell, Agle and Wood, 1997).

Berman et al (1999) argue that there is a conceptual agreement that managers should address stakeholder interests proactively, yet little has been done to identify which stakeholder interests should be attended to and what managers should do to address them. Consequently, scholars wishing to undertake empirical work on stakeholder management have had little to go on except broadly defined models of stakeholder theory. While several issues remain to be explored further, it is clear that stakeholder identification is a core element of an underlying notion of sustainable and participatory tourism. A key question is who should be the main beneficiaries from tourism development and indeed who should determine its pattern and pace of development?

According to Simmons (1998), four groups can be identified as primary stakeholders in the planning for tourism. These include; tourists (both international and domestic), host communities, the tourism industry, and future generations. Tourists are one of the key elements for the existence of travel activities and industries. Simply, there will be no tourism without tourists. It is not surprising to find that tourists have been a driving force and a dominant focus for tourism planning. The second group are host communities. Extensive concerns over host communities have been highlighted in the tourism literature and summarised for this thesis. There remains a genuine belief that host communities may become hostile to tourists once the negative impacts of tourism development are felt (Doxy, 1976). If the goal of tourism development is to maximise positive outcomes for host communities, it is essential that attitudes, aspirations and well being of host communities need to be

taken into the planning account. A third stakeholder group is the tourism industry. The industry provides tourism services for tourists. Scholars however caution that mainly satisfying the industry's need may lead to overemphasis on the financial goals, hence the other aspects of the planning may be sacrificed. Finally, Simmons (1998) asserts that if we are genuine in our search for sustainable tourism, future generations need to be added into the stakeholder groups for tourism planning.

3.3.6 Interim Summary

The literature reviewed commenced with a conventional view of the content and role of the basic marketing concept. It also revealed that marketing with social dimensions (e.g. Macromarketing, Societal marketing, Social marketing) and stakeholder management represent a significant departure from typical market planning processes in which society is viewed as an extraneous. Despite the growing interest of research and increasing evidence of the value of societal marketing actions, many still regard such activity as a secondary trade-off within a profit-oriented paradigm. Although much remains to be studied, to sceptics, the concept of integrating profit-driven activity with being socially responsible is just an *oxymoron*. However, given the importance of the tourism resources and their sustainability, and to avoid being viewed as exploitative, these emerging views of marketing should be revisited as they apply to tourism. In the context of community based tourism, as Bright (2000) suggests, the foci of social marketing can be used to engender community intention to participate, and to empower the community in tourism

planning and marketing. A blended societal marketing concept with community based tourism planning however has not been systematically conceptualised and empirically explored. Such an approach could potentially integrate non-economic criteria more effectively into contemporary tourism market planning. To provide a framework for subsequent discussions, Table 4 summarises key features of the fundamental concept and several emerging marketing themes discussed in previous sections.

Table 4 Fundamental Concept and Emerging Marketing Concepts

Elements	Fundamental Concept (Micro)	The Emerging concept (Marketing and Society)
Core tenet	Customer orientation Integrated effort Firm's Profit	Stakeholders orientation Integrated effort Sustainable Profit and Prosperity of Society
Customers	Specific market segments	Different Stakeholder groups
Goals	Profitability	Profitability and Social well being
Marketing Mix	Product, Price, Place, Promotion	Resource efficiency, Social Integration, Ethical Issues, Cause-related Marketing
Timeframe	Short term	Long term

3.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the basic marketing concept and several key emerging themes in the marketing field. These themes have provided an indicator of the changing face of the marketing concept. Increasing emphases on environmental concerns was found to be one of the important factors, demanding marketers to incorporate social consequences seriously into the marketing process. Societal marketing is now accepted as a notion, which could potentially be deployed to integrate profitability of the firm and social well being.

This chapter has also noted that in tourism field, such concepts and themes have not been critically analysed. Discussions and debates on relationships between marketing and planning a destination illustrate this concern. At a conceptual level, the dilemma appears to be the paucity in theoretical advances and at a practical sense the debate is centered on how to incorporate social consequences into an enterprises' profit goals. This is particularly challenging when one considers the complex nature of tourism systems. The next chapter will now turn to conceptualise how to integrate these differing issues to achieve community-driven tourism marketing at a destination level.

CHAPTER 4 DESTINATION MARKETING

A COMMUNITY BASED APPROACH

4.1 Introduction

The significance of community participation in tourism development has been detailed in chapter two. Here it was noted that tourism affects a broad range of the population in communities that have become tourism destinations, and it also affects natural environments. Together these are often the primary reason for people to travel and are core resources that distinguish one destination from another (Payne and Dimanche, 1996). It has also been noted that planners are confronted with difficulties in attempting to promote participatory tourism planning and marketing.

In the process of attempting to achieve greater participatory planning, tourism-marketing scholars have recently been questioning their models and approaches. Much of the criticism appears to attack destination marketing as being too narrowly focused on tourist demands and giving effect to only one “P”- promotion (March, 1994). Marketing with social dimensions and an emerging practice of societal marketing have been examined. Based on these previous discussions, this chapter seeks to conceptualise the potential integration of community based planning and marketing which will inform further the inquiry of this research.

4.2 Conceptualising the Link between Community-Driven Planning and Marketing

The literature reviewed has indicated that tourism may not be an easy candidate for community participation owing to its complexity and the disparate nature of the sector. Integrating such a difficult planning approach with destination marketing becomes an extremely challenging task. Jamieson (2001, p.1) stated that,

“there will always be tensions in community destination management. The tension of achieving economic development and seeking to protect, enhance and manage the social, cultural and natural environment of a destination will always be with us. The challenge is to ensure that a proper balance is achieved between these important imperatives. This task is ever more complicated given the need for a significant number of stakeholders to be included in the decision-making process in order to understand and deal with the wide range of issues and factors that must be considered in any destination”.

Tourism scholars concur that community participation is a cornerstone in finding a pathway to sustainable tourism. It is therefore essential to find a mechanism whereby marketing can contribute to advancing participatory planning approaches. The literature reviewed helps identify several diverging elements between the dominant marketing approach currently adopted within tourism and community-based tourism planning approach as shown in table 5 (overleaf).

**Table 5: The Divergence of Tourism Marketing and
Community-based Planning**

Items	Tourism Marketing	Community-Based Planning
Interest Group	Marketers, Private Company, Central Government	Environmentalists, Conservation bodies, Community, Local Government
Ideology	Growth and Profitability	Community well-being Sustainability
Focus	Demand Based Economic Impacts Market trends Tourists Market Driven	Supply Based Resources Economic, Environmental and Socio-Cultural Impacts Community Stakeholders Community Product Led
Tactics and Approach	Top-Down Forecasting Market Selection Promotion Mix	Bottom-Up Consultation Techniques Information Exchange Product Mix Marketing Mix
Timeframe	Short-term	Long term
Implementation	Community Imposition And Adaptation	Ongoing consultation and information exchange between community and tourism sector

The literature reviewed suggested that tourism marketing and community driven approach need to incorporate community aspirations into its planning and implementation processes. From a theoretical point of view, the societal marketing concept offers a promising approach for attaining greater community participation in tourism marketing and planning because it provides a distinct framework for identifying all involved ‘customers’ (stakeholders). This assessment could lead to a shift in planning, development, and administration of tourism marketing programmes, which need to direct a portion of its programmes to enhance community participation.

New programmes of community-driven marketing can potentially be developed to bring about greater community participation with two key interwoven purposes; as a means to an end (*internal marketing*) and as an end in itself (*external marketing*).

◆ Firstly, based on a careful assessment of the community and their knowledge about tourism development, a social marketing programme could be developed to educate/empower community members to overcome the limits and obstacles of participation. Consequently, the effectiveness of participation could gradually be increased. The ultimate objectives of community driven marketing programmes are;

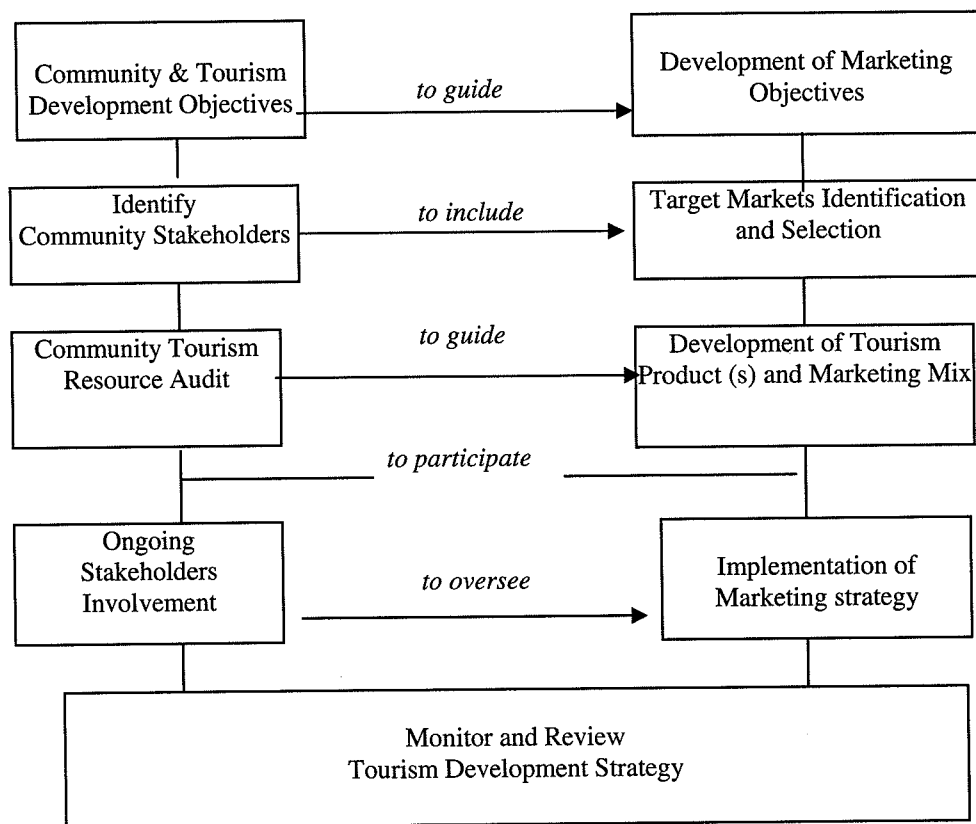
1. To educate the community about the nature of tourism and the necessity of their involvement in planning and marketing of their local destinations,
2. To empower the community so that they are able to initiate actions on their own and thus influence the processes and outcomes of development, and
3. To support individuals' initiatives and capacities to sustain community control even after a social/societal marketing campaign is completed.

Secondly, in the development of an *external* marketing programme within the planning process, marketing techniques could be designed systematically to secure a true kind of community consultation (Arnstein's 'citizen power') and on-going information exchange between planners and the community. An aim of this consultation is to identify community aspirations whereby marketing strategies can be devised accordingly. Jamieson (2001, p.9) suggested that 'while traditional marketing places heavy emphasis on the potential customer's needs and desires, community driven tourism marketing begins with the consideration of a

community's values, goals and needs. Preserving the integrity of the natural and cultural resource base is the foundation of such an approach'.

The above arguments combined with contemporary tourism planning and marketing literatures have led to the formulation of a prescriptive or normative model (Figure 3) of the way tourism planning and marketing 'could' or 'should be' formulated and implemented.

Figure 3: Parallel Tourism Planning Systems for Integrating Community into Marketing Planning



The proposed prescriptive model provides a logical step and segments, which outlines necessary components regarding how participatory planning and marketing

should be conducted. In practical sense, it can be argued that there are challenges in implementation. It should therefore be realised that a community-driven marketing approach would be possible if the following mechanisms are re-evaluated and devised.

4.2.1 Customer Orientation versus Community Orientation

The depth of the relationships between community-driven approach and marketing reaches far deeper than purely the possible application of the extended marketing concept (societal marketing). In fact, it extends to the foundation of marketing itself-- the marketing concept. As discussed in Chapter three, the core of the marketing concept is a customer orientation. Everything a company does should start with the idea of “satisfying customers”, through better products, lower costs, greater speed, and superior service in relative to its competitors (marketing mix). Numerous authors including Allen and Nafius (1993); Hammer and Champy (1993); Peters (1994); Lowenthal (1994); Dixon, et. all (1994); Caeldries (1994); and Cherry (1994) agree that a customer orientation is absolutely necessary if business enterprises are to be successful.

Arguably, if marketing scholars concur that the degree of being customer orientation is a key element of marketing success, then significant linkages regarding community-driven planning and marketing and possible integration depend largely on identifying ‘who are the customers of tourism development?’ It has been found in the literature that inherent within the societal marketing approaches is the idea of

widening the customer orientation to include other *stakeholders*. Although a comprehensive stakeholders group for tourism remains inconclusive, the common theme from a community-based planning context identifies that *community is viewed as the primary customer*. Marketers therefore need to integrate the community into their consumer orientation and take community needs and wants into consideration when formulating tourism policies and strategies. Based on this innovative approach, broad customer groups for tourism and their general needs and expectations from tourism development are outlined in Table 6.

Table 6: Customer Groups for Community-based Tourism & General Needs

Tourists	Community		Future Generations
	Local	National	
Relaxation Novelty Safety Value for money Accommodation Infrastructure	Income Employment Quality of Life Resources Protection Development of Amenity Retention or development of social services		Resources to serve their needs

The arguments put forward in this research are that current marketing practices have been focused merely on tourists' satisfaction. This scope is incomplete as it is missing two significant components of stakeholders. Thus, it is essential to include an understanding of community needs and wants. Being 'community oriented' however indicates the need for more extensive focus on delineation of community. A better understanding of 'community' will in turn help identify community divisions and who

should be involved in certain planning issues. Such foci could unveil several research questions in the area of *community behaviour* as opposed to tourist behaviour. This reassessment will also inevitably redefine marketing processes, marketing mix, marketing success indicators such as profitability, 'customer' satisfaction, and product/service quality.

4.2.2 Integrated Effort and Interaction within Tourism Systems

Community-based marketing requires an integrated effort. The process should neither be a top-down, nor bottom-up approach instead it should be an interactive approach which requires coordination and interaction between the various stakeholders, and planners or marketers. In other words, community driven tourism marketing should be a product of the relationships and communication within the tourism system, institutional arrangements, and the interests and values of every party involved in destination marketing. Such a constant interaction within the system helps explain why community driven marketing is so difficult in terms of amount of time, information, and expertise that is required. Two interrelated points are particularly significant but problematic:

- Institutional functions and structures: coordination and linkages within planning institutions

Tourism marketers need to conceptualise how their functions fit into other planning elements. For instance, within the national tourism organisation, marketing departments must be linked to the planning division and should be seen as a part of the

overall planning process. This means that tourism marketers need to recognise the holistic and complex nature of tourism development processes. It is argued here that marketing or promotional implementation is translated partially from the tourism plan as an implementation tool to increase number of visitors. Social and environmental concerns/programmes are too often missing from the implementation of tourism marketing strategies and/or programmes. It is therefore important to scrutinise how such social and environmental elements can be incorporated and translated more effectively into marketing implementation.

- Public Sector Coordination

The lack of single authorities responsible for tourism development requires collaboration and partnership amongst governmental bodies and across community stakeholders. An essential element of 'community-driven marketing' approach is an establishment of inter-organisational relationships in which information flow is maximised for coordination to occur. Government has been identified as an important constituent in 'orchestrating' all players within tourism system. Several roles of government in tourism have been stressed, for instance the WTO suggested four main functions for which government should be responsible; that is coordinating, legislation, planning and financing. Hall (1999:135) states, "given the large number of public organisations which have an interest in tourism matters, one of the main challenges for government is being able to bring the various organisations and agencies together to work for common policy objectives". However, it has been noted that the complex nature of the tourism industry and the often poorly defined linkages

between its components are major barriers to the integrative planning. As discussed in this thesis, these are also seen as prerequisite to obtain a community-driven marketing approach. Finding a systematic administrative structure and mechanism in order for tourism marketing to be planned in an integrated manner remains extremely difficult.

4.2.3 A Profit and Social Wellbeing Focus

An emerging societal marketing approach indicates that marketing programmes should not only be directed to achieve profitability and growth but also should enhance social well being. While the idea of this self-regulation through responsible marketing programmes is indispensable, achieving such an integrated path is problematic particularly in the tourism context. As noted, tourism is considered to be a complex system, predominantly driven by the private sector. It is common for the private sector to direct their individual marketing efforts towards growth and profitability. This direction however often fails to protect adequately the environment on which industry depends for its existence. Hall (1999) argues, individuals or the private sector are not able to come together to coordinate a strategy to protect (or enhance) the environment because they regard it as a 'free' resource to which their own individual activities do little harm. He (ibid:19) also added that 'business is rarely interested in long-term social and environmental need as opposed to short-term revenue and profits'. Within the objective of profit maximisation, any actor is tempted to shift from priced to non-priced or under-priced resources and to externalise cost as much as possible. Thus individual businesses tend to increase their personal welfare at the cost of society in general, society as a whole is driven to collapse by the

accumulated externalised costs as seen in many destinations. In this case, market failures occur because neither individual businesses account for the full costs of production, nor tourists for the full costs of their consumption. The free market is therefore not an adequate system for tourism. For these reasons, tourism development requires significant intervention from government.

As discussed in chapter three, although the societal marketing concept provides a good groundwork for self-regulating tourism business conduct, Mckercher (1993) contends that 'the very nature of the tourism industry makes voluntary compliance with environmental protection programmes virtually impossible' (p 10). He adds that the tourism industry consists of a large number of small operators who may simply not be able to afford the high cost of installing appropriate pollution control systems. Hall (1999: 36) advocates, in the environmental sphere, producer awareness may be raised through the production of environmental codes of conduct or practice. However, such documents may need to be backed up by government regulation and environmental planning legislation if they are to have any overall affect on development practices. McKercher (1993) however points out that government plays an inadequate role in policing private developments to ensure they operate in a responsible manner.

These above points acknowledge that pursuing growth through marketing strategies need to be controlled and restricted by formulating and implementing appropriate government policy and regulation. The necessity of developing a societal

marketing approach is widely recognised, but how marketers could, and most likely would, change their practices (i.e full internationalisation of social costs) needs to be spelled out more clearly.

In addition, tourism planners and marketers need to recognise that implementing marketing activities aiming for highest growth (high volume of visitors) may not be the best strategic outcome. Jamieson (2001) noted the necessity of segmenting tourists, suggesting, “not all forms of tourism or types of visitor are compatible with local goals and conditions. Careful attention to high-quality, high-yield visitors will benefit the community much more than indiscriminate mass marketing” (p.9). Recent research pertaining to the UK and Scottish visitor attraction sector (Lennon, 2003), however, has suggested that a sophisticated approach to issues of pricing, revenue and yield per visitor is limited and urgently needs further research. Planners require a better understanding about key components of yield management for each tourism sector (i.e accommodation, transportation and so on). According to Vinod (2004), these issues include;

- Pricing strategy to maximise the revenue potential
- Optimally match demand to available supply to accommodate the most profitable mix of customers
- Accurate demand forecasting technique

In summary, the common elements of both the marketing concept and community-based planning (a customer orientation, integration, and a profit

orientation) suggest a possible link between the marketing and community based planning. These need to be moderated by the three elements common to both however. There is a need to reengineer tourism organisational structures and reset tourism development goals to allow the societal marketing concept to be utilised to its full potential.

4.3 Research Propositions: Guiding Principles

The above literature review has provided a number of broad guiding principles for the execution of an empirical case study.

Proposition 1: Re-conceptualising multiple interests and identities within communities is critical in meeting the formidable challenges facing community-based planning efforts.

Proposition 2: Moving towards a more participatory tourism should be viewed as a *process*, which requires the involvement of, and willingness to change from, a wide range of people, not least including public sector planners and managers, particularly at the local level.

Proposition 3: Government intervention strategies earmarked specifically to community capacity building are essential.

Proposition 4: There are obstacles associated with the public administration being centralised and too bureaucratic to respond to local public needs. There is therefore a need for a major change in the way policy makers work with the community.

Proposition 5: The presence of government organisations is vital in playing proactive roles, namely bringing stakeholders to the table, constructively exploring their differences of opinion, and in assisting the search for common solutions or to identifying necessary trade-offs and compromises. These organisations are also seen as an important mechanism for the promotion of participatory planning.

Proposition 6: Relatively few players tend to exercise political power and have control over the future of community and tourism development.

Proposition 7: Regulation is likely to be required if a more responsible tourism marketing and planning is to be implemented successfully.

Proposition 8: A market-based solution to environmental and social problems could be feasible if, but only if, environmental and social costs could be translated to the market as prices.

Proposition 9: Augmenting an understanding of community needs and wants as well as its contexts to the existing prevailing marketing programme is essential. Being community oriented will result in the need for more extensive delineation about community.

Proposition 10: Tourism marketing approaches undertaken by state tourism organisations at the national or destination level would be considered to fall into macromarketing, since their marketing programmes are designed to serve aggregate-tourism related organisations and constituencies.

Proposition 11: There is a gap between the practice of tourism marketing and planning. While tourism marketing concentrates on increasing visitation and treats tourism like any other commodity, tourism planning concentrates more on the impacts

of tourism and takes a strong stand on a more balanced outcome, where environmental and socio-cultural issues are incorporated into the planning process.

Proposition 12: The performance of participatory development strategies is not encouraging and authentic participation (Arnstein's citizen power) seldom occurs.

12a: There are obstacles associated with the public administration being centralised and too bureaucratic to respond to public needs.

12b: There is a large communication gap between communities and decision-makers. This results in an increased knowledge gap and isolation of the local community from the tourism development process.

12c: There is lack of awareness of the consequences of tourism development in the local community and this is worsening by lacking opportunities for local people to take part in the decision-making process.

12d: There is lack of expertise on how to incorporate community participation in the planning.

4.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the fundamental marketing concept to provide a background for better understanding of several emerging variants of marketing to take account of broader social concerns. Its key tenet is identified as the extension of 'customer orientation'. It is now advocated that an identification of customers should include all affected stakeholders within the business boundary. This identification leads to a new and broader marketing focus. Societal marketing concepts such as marketing ethics, marketing and quality of life, social responsible marketing have been reviewed.

Significant linkages regarding community-driven planning and marketing and possible integration have been discussed which pointed to the necessity to revisit a key of fundamental marketing concept - 'who are the customers of tourism development?' A vital argument of this chapter was that while traditional marketing places heavy emphasis on the potential customer's needs and desires, an innovative approach of 'community driven tourism marketing' should begin with the consideration of a community's values, goals and needs. Discussions on practical level also have drawn particular attention to the need for an integrated effort within the tourism system, high-quality and high-yield visitors, and how tourism sectors could achieve profitability and growth but also could enhance social well being. It is demonstrated in this chapter clearly that marketing with social dimension needs further analysis in tourism field.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methods selected to achieve the objectives of this study. The subject matter, research questions, topic, and objectives of this study all have a bearing on the choice of methodology. The following sections first discuss the data collection procedure and research methodology in detail. Data analysis techniques are then outlined.

5.2 Research Methods and Data Collection Procedure

Research questions being asked should dictate the types of research strategy, methods, or methodology used in a study (Bonoma 1985, Eisenhardt, 1989). The research questions of this study pertain to *how* marketing and community based tourism planning approaches can be integrated in order to assist the planning for sustainable tourism development. Two key issues are specifically addressed;

- (1) theoretically, the research aims to demonstrate the relevance of and the integration between marketing and community based tourism planning and
- (2) guided by theoretical development achieved from this study, destination areas will be studied and appraised as specific case examples to help

identify gaps between the defined normative perspective and actual planning approaches. These cases will also assist refinement of theory.

Given the research topic, the goals of this research lie not in the breadth or representation of large sample research, but rather in depth of knowledge or the contextual richness of what is learned. This level of focus suggests the use of a close examination of case studies which generally will yield rich and context-specific data (Browning et al., 1995).

The research methods and methodology of this study have not only been designed to fit and provide answers to the research questions, but also to provide a series of cross checks. This means each piece of information gained, or each conclusion reached, will be considered tentative or idiosyncratic until corroborated by information collected by other means or from other sources. With these issues in mind and guided by a conceptual framework (Figure 1 in chapter 1), the researcher has designed research methods, data collection procedure and data analysis as depicted in Table 7 (overleaf) and will be explained in details as follows.

Table 7: Research Methods, Data Collection Procedures, and Timeline

Methods	Objectives	Duration
<i>Stage 1 Literature Review</i>	To develop a working model and research framework as a basis for explanation and prediction.	June 2000-ongoing
<i>Stage 2 Evaluation</i>		June 2000
<i>2.1 Selection of Destination Areas (Cases)</i>	Broad examples of tourism planning and practice against which to evaluate the working model	
<i>2.2 Observations</i>	To introduce the researcher and the research topic To seek support from relevant organisations To gain familiarisation with the selected sites	15 December 2000- 24 January-2001
<i>2.3 Secondary and Archival Data</i>	To gain familiarisation with the area of study, specifically relating to the planning and marketing in practice.	June 2000-ongoing
<i>2.4 In-depth Interviews</i>	To explore the topic from key informants, experts and involved stakeholders.	21 October – 10 December 2001
<i>Stage 3 Identification of Issues</i>		
<i>Data Analysis</i> <i>Within cases and Cross cases analysis</i>	Conclusion Drawn To recommend pathways towards integration of planning and marketing	November 2001- May 2004

5.2.1 Ideology Development - Literature Review

An extensive literature review was conducted as an ongoing basis throughout the research, to help support the research proposal and domain of the study (Chapter 2, 3 and 4). As a result of this review, a normative model, and research propositions were constructed (Chapter 4) as a foundation to explain how marketing now needs to be integrated into community based tourism planning. This model helps narrow the range of facts that the researcher needs to study. Theoretical and research propositions have also suggested a system for the researcher to impose on data collected and to classify them in the most meaningful way (Babbie, 1998). It is important to note that research propositions and the model were considered provisional at this stage. They only reflect the important theoretical issues highlighted in the literature review. As Yin (1984: 30) suggests, “each proposition directs attention to something that should be examined within the scope of study”. More importantly, this ‘loose guiding principle’ is intended to permit potentially novel discoveries from the fieldwork.

5.2.2 Case Study Research Strategy and Selecting Cases

This research employed a comparable case study research strategy, as it is believed to be appropriate in seeking to understand complex, dynamic, and multi-dimensional contemporary phenomenon (Yin, 1984). As Yin (ibid, p.20) states, ‘the case study’s unique strength is its ability to deal with full variety of evidence – documents, artifacts, interviews, and observations’.

The study involved multiple cases in order to ensure validity and robustness of results. This means that if these cases produce similar results, conclusions then can be drawn with a high degree of certainty. Destination area types were specified in this research as being:

- a) destination areas with a broad government mandate for tourism planning and marketing, and
- b) the areas are located in developing countries.

These specifications help define the limits and domain to which this study's finding can be generalised (external validity). Within this broad specification, three local sites were selected purposively to meet the predetermined research purposes. It is important to note that these cases were not chosen randomly, as Pettigrew (1988) suggested given the limited number of cases which can usually be studied, it makes sense to choose cases such as extreme situations and polar types in which the process of interest is 'transparently observable'. Yin (1984) and Sofaer (1999) agree with this view, suggesting that it is common to use purposive sampling of sites where the investigators have at least some idea of what they are looking for and where they need to go to find it.

Considering the issues above, the country of Thailand, being the researcher's country of origin, was selected as a base for the model analysis, as it is believed that it fills the requirements identified above. While the thesis addresses an important global issue, it has far greater relevance to the immediate needs of tourism in developing economies. In this sense, the contextual examination is not only specific to Thailand

and its socio-cultural environments, but also could be applied to any destination where tourism has been relied upon as a major generator of economic activities in a rapidly growing region. In particular, The Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) provides a sound example of a comprehensive government tourism administrative structure. The centralised structure and responsibility of this single authorised entity reflects well the situation in many developing countries where a commitment to tourism requires government to establish an organisation to take the lead in both planning and marketing a destination. Three destination areas – Samui Island, Patong (Phuket), and Songkla- were selected to provide examples of destination areas at local levels. These destinations make significant contributions economically and socially to the overall development of Thai tourism. Additionally, they are each well established and are renowned internationally. Their main characteristics and their detailed contexts are discussed later in the next chapter.

5.2.3 Data Gathering Techniques

Site observation, Secondary and Archival Data, and In-depth Interviews

This research employed different types of data-gathering techniques. This is because collecting data from a variety of sources and methods serves as a means of ‘perceptual triangulation’, thus increasing internal validity (Bonama, 1985). In general terms, this strategy involves using as many data sources as possible to illuminate the same objective matter. By an attempt to reconcile the gathered evidence across data

types and between cases, the likelihood of generating and reforming perceptions into a more robust understanding increases (Eisenhardt, 1989, Glaser and Strauss, 1967).

Observations

Initial support from TAT and other related organisations, as well as a personal observation of all selected sites, was acquired during a first field visit from 15 December 2000 to 24 January 2001. Contemporary situations of all selected sites were observed and recorded in handwritten form, as notes or memos of questions, and thoughts for further investigation. During this observation trip, one monthly meeting among members of tourism industry association was attended at Hatyai. In Samui and Phuket cases, meetings were only held informally with the president of tourism industry association. These meetings not only provided background material and observations for further inquiry but also provided opportunities for the researcher to introduce herself and the research topic.

Secondary and Archival Data

At the exploration stage, the researcher began with an extensive search of published data. The national economic and social plan, annual reports, tourism development budgets and tourism marketing plans were studied thoroughly. These documents provided an *ex post* assessment whereby a clear understanding of what has happened in the past was established. The following distinct data collection approaches were employed:

1. Historical data covering the period from 1970-present were gathered from available archives. This historical data provided context for the contemporary situations.
2. Coverage of area-related issues in the local and international newspaper between 1990-present was also reviewed for further background information and to help formulate in-depth interviews with respondents.
3. All available tourism master plans of each selected sites were studied.

All documents were reviewed to identify relevant planning and marketing situations, themes, and approaches. Information obtained from the review provided general background knowledge and the contemporary context of Thai tourism and three selected case study areas. These review also helped the researcher eliminate uncertainty about appropriate questions for the in-depth interviews. Using these published documents as a reference, the researcher then investigated *how and why (or why not)* current planning approach and marketing programmes are envisaged and practiced to achieve participatory tourism development.

Respondents/Informants Selection

Building upon the background information elicited from the above methods, the researcher further sought out well-informed people on the topic, especially those who have clearly stated positions and involvement in tourism planning and marketing (Sofaer, 1999). A stakeholders' matrix/grid (Table 8 overleaf) was developed to help identify these informants. As seen in the matrix, key areas of sustainable tourism planning and policy (social, economic, environment, and cultural) were to be explored

at both the central (policy) and local (implementation) levels. This is to be the case for each of the three case study areas. Thus the interviewees were chosen primarily on the basis of the role they occupy with tourism planning and implementation system. This method is known as a theoretical sampling, which is used to ensure that a broad range of stakeholders participate in the research. Interviewees or respondents were not statistically representative; in this case they were selected appropriately according to their relevance to the subject in question. Tourism organisation within the selected cases, recommendation from TAT officials, and an agreement to participating in the research also help dictate the basis for the decision on who should be included and excluded.

Table 8
Grid/Matrix of Stakeholders and Their Involvement in Tourism Planning

	Planning/Policy	Implementation
Social	National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) Local Government TAT	Local Government NGOs TAT Private Sector Group
Economic	National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB) Local Government TAT	Individual Commercial Interests Individual Residents Private Sector Group Core Tourism Group (i.e. Hotels Association, Travel agent association, etc...)
Environmental	TAT NESDB Local Government	NGOs
Cultural	TAT Resident Leader Community Cultural Group	Resident Leader Community Cultural Group

In addition, the structure of Thai tourism, which is centralised around TAT's functions, suggested that interviewees should be divided into two levels: at the national and local levels. Table 8a (p. 108) outlines the tourism planners involved in planning at the national level, whereas table 8b (p. 108) outlined the involved local planners.

After having gaining Lincoln University's ethical approval for research with human subject, and initial support from TAT, a letter of introduction (in English as attached in Appendix 1), a brief summary of the research topic and general interview questions (in Thai as attached in Appendix 2) were then sent to a TAT official who kindly agreed to help liaise all appointments three weeks prior to a second series of site visits.

A total of thirty-seven in-depth interviews were conducted between the 21st of October and 10th of December 2001. Eight interviews were held with national TAT officials (see table 8a). Twenty-nine interviews were held with those who are involved in tourism development at the local level. These include ten interviews in Samui, ten interviews in Hatyai and nine interviews in Phuket. Some of these interviewees however play more than one role in the tourism industry and their interviews are represented more than once (see table 8b). For example, the president of Hatyai-Songkla Hotel Association is also a hotel manager, as well as being a local politician. Most interviews lasted one hour on average. The longest interview lasted two hours.

All interviewees agreed for the conversation to be tape recorded. The tapes were later transcribed for further analysis.

Table 8a: Interviews with TAT at the National Level

Departments/Functions	Number of Interviews
Senior officer from marketing development division	1
Senior officer from planning department	1
Senior officer from master plan division	1
Senior officer from project planning division	1
Officer from resources development division	1
Officer from conservation division	1
Officer from environmental organization section	1
Officer from services development division	1
Total	8

Table 8b Interviews from Selected Research Sites

Position	Number of Organisations Interviewed			
	Phuket	Songkla Hatyai	Samui	Total
Local TAT officers	1	1	1	3
Representatives from conservation groups	1	1	1	3
Leaders of tourism-related association	1	2	2	5
Senior officer from Chamber of Commerce	1	1	1	3
Local government officials	1	2	1	4
Respected local residents	2	2	2	6
Representatives from art and craft groups	1	1	2	4
Hotel managers	2	2	2	6
Travel agent managers	1	1	1	3
Total	11	13	13	37

Interview Techniques

Thai language was used throughout the interviews. On many occasions, the Southern dialect was also used to encourage the discussion to be as open as possible. This was found to be particularly necessary in the situation where cultural concepts

could not be easily translated into English or even into official Thai (Bangkok Dialect).

The nature of the research questions suggested a stepwise design. This means that the first step of data collection was to initially explore and generate a wide range of insider perspectives (*emic*) about the subject (Morey and Luthans, 1984). Any themes which emerge from both initial questions (within individual interviews) were then pursued further to probe their validity. Similarly, any themes which emerge from previous interviews were pursued further for their validity during subsequent in-depth discussions. In this regard, unstructured interviews, which were guided by general topics, were initially conducted with key informants from national TATS' officials, local business associations, local government and community leaders and members. The main goal of employing unstructured interviewing format is to allow the respondents to take the lead in discussions in order for the researcher to pick up information and define areas of importance to pursue in more structured interviews. Five broad themes were addressed:

1. General organisational background
2. Individuals' roles in planning and marketing
3. From their organisation's perspective, identify factors that are detracting from the effectiveness of community participation
4. What could be done to maximise community input in the future?
5. What factors can render participatory programmes effective and ineffective at the local level?

After extracting themes from these interviews, interviewing then changed to a semi-structured format so all respondents were asked not only general topics but also

were asked the same set of open-ended questions (see attached questions in appendix 3) to explain and offer general comments about the topic. The main aims of employing this interviewing format are;

- to ensure that attention is directed to a common set of key issues
- to identify contradictory issues which might be identified by different sources and
- to draw out other wider contextual issues that might have a bearing on increasing public participation in tourism planning and marketing.

5.2.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis and collection were undertaken simultaneously to ensure the emergent issues and all possible explanations about the cases, were probed and examined in an evolutionary way. The data collected were first reviewed and then organised *manually* around certain topics, key themes and central research questions. It was important to initially classify all collected data into two levels (national and local) based on the respondents' level/scale of involvement in planning and marketing.

Content analysis was used particularly to deal with the volume of data. The analysis began with simply identifying 'what was said' or the common themes of the data. In this initial approach, equivalent meanings or themes were identified instead of a mere count of the occurrences of specific words, as practiced in classical content analysis (Carney, 1979). The formation of appropriate themes takes on importance at this stage. A new category was created for any issues found which could not be fit easily to the existing categories.

The results obtained from the first processing of data were however regarded as preliminary. As suggested by several researchers, a second reading, and new reflections may lead the researcher to discover new dimensions in the answers. This may produce new categories and a revision of the existing ones (Berelson, 1971). Three repeat readings and reviews were undertaken for this study. Initially, a total of 36 issues from the national level and 46 issues from the three local areas level were identified and listed using themes stemming from the literature, research propositions and the working model as a guiding principle. These issues were then corroborated by secondary data. A second and third review of the initial analytical result has led to a combination of several overlapping and interrelated issues; for example, 'tourism expansion' and 'tourism grow too fast' were combined. A total of 35 issues from the national level and 46 issues from the three local areas level which were categorised under five themes (the organisation and management system, institutional arrangement and administrative system, legislative and regulatory framework, community capacity, and cultural aspects) were eventually identified and will be presented later in chapter 7. The result of this analysis will be reported in chapter 7, whereas the context of the study areas will be presented first in the next chapter.

5.3 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided details on the methods used to advance this study. A focus on three selected case study was used to reflect on a theoretical base developed from the literature reviewed. A sequential methodology was designed and employed

to address questions of internal and external validity, as well as triangulation of data. These techniques range from observations to in-depth interviews, and the gathering of secondary and archival data. Emerging themes were extracted using the literature reviewed, research propositions, and a proposed working model as principle guidelines. The following chapters will examine the contemporary perspectives and issues in tourism planning and marketing. The information presented in the next chapter is seen as a necessary precursor in investigating the gaps between a prescriptive view of tourism planning and the practicality of such a view which will, in turn, be elaborated in the cross case comparison presented in chapter 7.

CHAPTER 6

RESEARCH SETTING

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters have provided a theoretical base upon which a community based planning and marketing model could be established. This model is prescriptive, as it was developed to demonstrate how planning and destination marketing *should* occur relative to contemporary tourism planning and marketing literatures. Three destination areas in Thailand were selected to reflect on these models and to provide a detailed insight into the real world. Background information about these cases, which will be presented in this chapter, is a prerequisite for the subsequent analysis. Following presentation of general background information about Thailand and the contemporary context of Thai tourism, three selected destination areas are introduced.

6.2 Thailand: An Introduction to Environmental Factors

Tourism is a highly complex phenomenon, which is ‘interconnected’ with a wider range of policy and planning concerns and approaches (Hall, 1999). It is therefore difficult or impossible to analyse tourism in isolation from a country’s wider environmental context. This section introduces this background context, which emphasises government structures and the recent reforms towards decentralisation for better local governance. Currently, several significant movements are taking place to

enlist community participation in the country's development. These processes will inevitably affect the way tourism planning and marketing are conducted in Thailand.

6.2.1 General Information

General information about Thailand is shown in Figure 4, and will be elaborated subsequently.

Figure 4: Thailand: General Information

Location:	Southeast Asia
Size:	Approximately 517,000 square km.
Capital:	Bangkok
Admin. Areas:	75 Provinces plus Bangkok Metropolitan Area
	876 Districts (Ampor)
	7,255 Sub-district (Tambons)
	69,367 Villages (Muban)
Local Gov.:	75 Provincial Administrative Organisations
	1,129 municipalities (as of June 1, 1999)
	2 special forms of Local Government
	(Bangkok and Pattaya Metropolitan Administrations)
	6,747 Tambon Administrative Organisations (TAOs)
	(as of March 2000)
Population:	61,466,178 (30,874,576 females and 30,591,602 males)

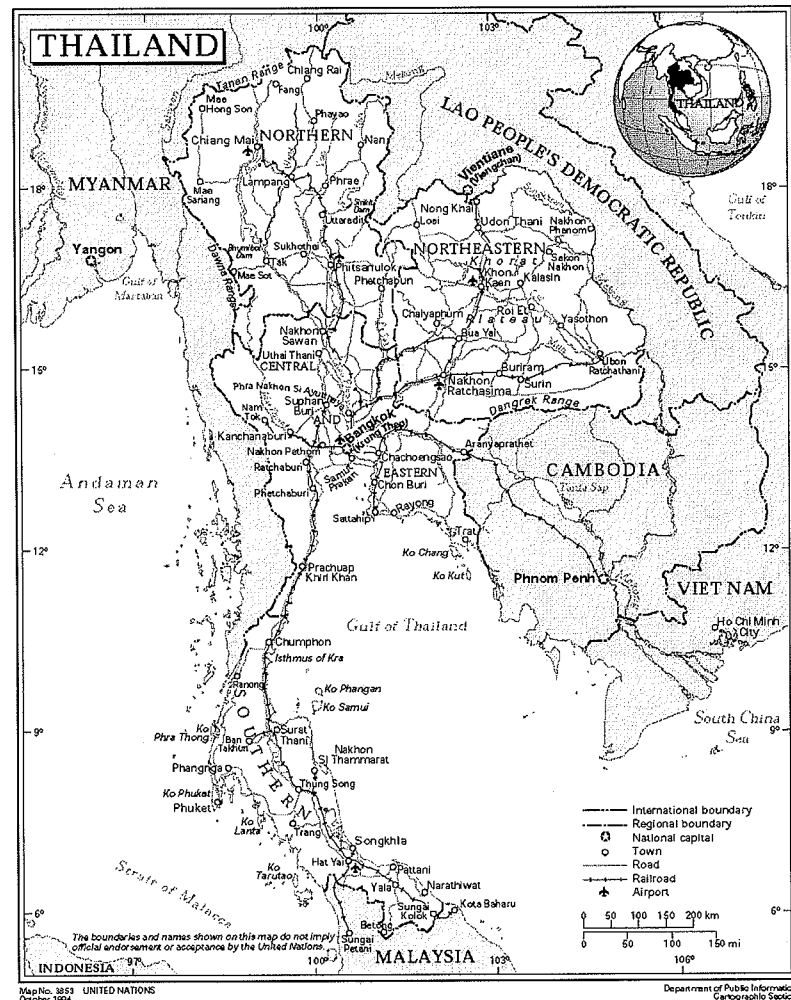
Source: UNDP, 2002

Geography

Thailand covers an area of 514,000 square kilometres in the centre of the South-East Asian peninsula. It is bordered by Myanmar, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Cambodia and Malaysia, and has 2,420 kilometres of coast line on the Gulf of Thailand and the Andaman Sea. Thailand stretches 1,650 kilometres from north to

south, and from east to west 780 kilometres at its widest point (see Figure 5, Map of Thailand).

Figure 5: Map of Thailand



Source: UNDP, 2002

People

The estimated population (1999) is 61.4 million of which approximately 9.3 million live in Bangkok and its vicinities. Ninety-four percent of the population are Thai-speaking Buddhists; Thai is also the official language of the country. Four distinct dialects of the Thai language are spoken, in the central, northern, southern and

in the north-eastern regions, the latter being closely related to the Lao language. In the four southern provinces of Pattani, Satun, Yala and Naratiwat near the Malaysian border, the majority of the population is Muslim and speaks "Pattani" Malay. In the mountains of the northern region there are approximately 525,000 highland people who speak distinct languages (UNDP, 2002).

From about 1850 until the Second World War there was a steady flow of immigrants from China who established themselves in commerce throughout the country. The population of Chinese origin now comprises 10-15 percent of the total population (ibid).

Bangkok (or Krung Thep) has been the capital since 1782. Bangkok metropolitan area is by far the most significant urban area in the country. The per capita income in Bangkok is more than triple the national average of US\$ 2,200 per year (1998). The next largest city, Nakhon Ratchasima in the northeast, has a population of 2.5 million (ibid).

6.2.2 Government Structure in Thailand

Thailand changed from an absolute monarchy to a democratic government in 1932. The Administrative Law of 1933 primarily established three layers in the Thai administrative structure; the central or national administration, provincial and local administrations. Central ministries and departments play major roles in policy formulation and implementation through both their central and provincial offices. At

the provincial level, a governor, who is a permanent civil servant under the Ministry of Interior, is appointed to facilitate and coordinate public programmes amongst various central and local government agencies. Under this administrative structure, Thailand evolved into a centralised administration with a strong national government. Until today, these structures of the centralised administration have remained a dominant feature of Thai governance culture that is difficult to change.

The development of local governance has been slow. In 1955 and 1956, the Provincial Council and the Sub-district (or Tambon) Council were created at the provincial and tambon levels respectively. One of the main reasons for this procedure was to promote and prepare local communities for a self-governing system (Local governance will be discussed in more detailed in the next section). Since then, an attempt to decentralise power to provincial and tambon levels has been enduring, with a history of several uprisings and growing opposition to centralisation and bureaucratic rules⁸.

More recently, the formalisation of the Tambon Council and Tambon Administration Act 1994 and a new national Constitution of 1997 have been enacted. As a result governance and administration particularly at local levels have been modified. The new government structure is shown in Figure 6 (p.119). Generally, there has been no significant change made to the structure of government at the

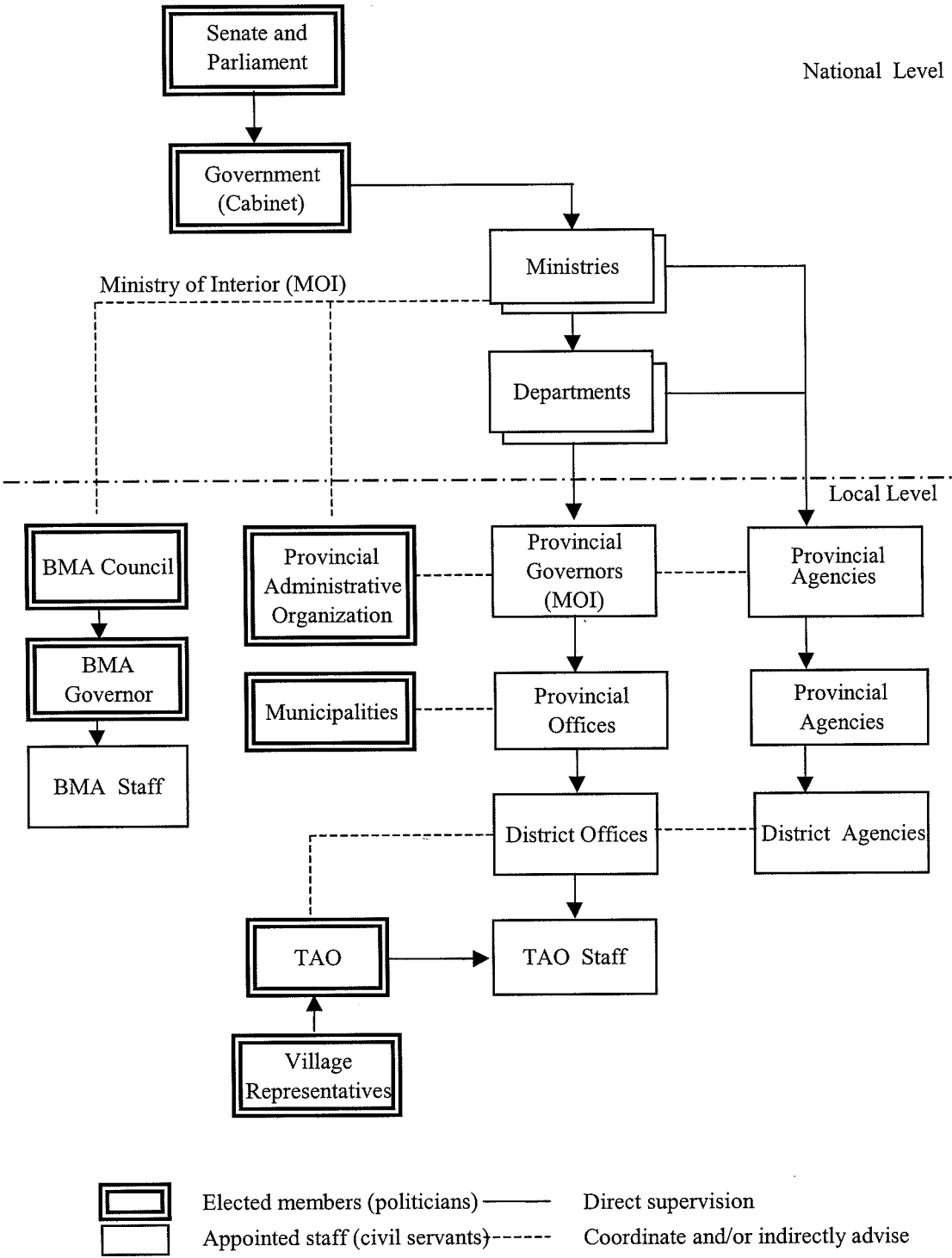
⁸ It is beyond the scope of this study to discuss political development in Thailand in any greater detail. For interested scholars, Arghiros D. (2001) provides a comprehensive insight into democratic decentralisation in Thailand.

national level. Presently, the cabinet is responsible for the administration of 20 ministries, as well as the Office of the Prime Minister⁹. Each ministry is headed by a minister with one or more deputy ministers, all of whom sit in the cabinet. A number of cabinet committees have been set up consisting of relevant ministers, such as the Cabinet Economic Committee and the Cabinet Social Committee, to coordinate major policies initiatives. This development enables the government to ensure that policy is compatible across portfolios.

The new constitution is aimed specifically at providing a decentralised policy framework. Thus an important objective of the decentralisation is to reform local government. Currently there are four types of local government in Thailand; Provincial Administrative Organisations (PAOs), Municipalities, Tambon Administrative Organisations (TAOs), and two special forms of city governance, namely the Bangkok Metropolitan Administration (BMA) and the Pattaya Administration.

⁹ Tourism and Sports, Social Development and Human Services, Information and Communication Technology, and Culture Ministries have been recently created in October 2002.

Figure 6: The National and Local Government Structure in Thailand



6.2.3 Local Governance and Decentralisation

An ongoing attempt has been made to develop better forms of local government, to serve communities better. In practice, however, real people's participation in planning their future and in development processes seems unobtainable as long as administrative power and resources remain in the control of the central offices (Sopchokchai, 2001). For example, many reports and scholars have highlighted repeatedly the failure of government-centralised efforts to eradicate poverty and improve the quality of life for rural people in Thailand. Sopchokchai (2001) explains that officials who work in the community are appointed by the central government; therefore, they are accountable to their superiors in the head offices rather than to the local community.

In 1994 a significant move occurred when the Government implemented the Tambon Council and Tambon Administration Organisation Act. The Act aimed:

- to rectify the rigidity and overly centralised power of the national government by decentralising administrative power to local people at the Tambon and village levels and,
- to revitalise people's participation in community development affairs.

After the Tambon Act of 1994, there are two other important milestones; the development of the 8th National Economic and Social Development Plan (1997 - 2001) and the promulgation of the new Constitution in 1997. Both documents were

designed to promote and build a more open and democratic society. Based on a nation-wide process of consultation, that involved a series of participatory meetings to gather inputs from all sectors of the Thai society, the 8th Plan finally defines development as a 'people-centred process'. This involved a new development paradigm in Thai society to replace the top-down approach that was previously and widely practiced by public agencies. In particular, the Plan emphasises enabling and empowering local people to develop their own communities through (a) decentralisation of government functions and resources, (b) increased public participation and, (c) enhanced transparency and an improved system of governance (the 8th NESDP). The increasing importance of the local authorities (Provincial Administration Organisations (PAOs) and Tambon Administration Organisations (TAOs)) is reflected by the fact that the government intends about 35 per cent of the annual budget to be allocated through them by 2006 (Bangkok Post, 3 July 2000, p.3).

To date, there remains widespread argument and confusion about the scope and areas of responsibility for the local government bodies, especially with regard to Tambon Administrative Organisations (TAOs) as well as to the traditional structure of the central system. These newly created local authorities such as the PAOs and TAOs still control very limited resources and their policies and plans are not free from central political controls. It is however too soon to evaluate the effectiveness of these newly created organisations. In the midst of resistance from the traditional bureaucratic system, the laws and the Constitution only begin to pave the way for self-governing, self-regulated local authorities to emerge. According to Sopchokchai

(2001), the most important agent of local government in Thailand is the Tambon Administrative Organisations (TAOs) because:

- TAOs are the closest and smallest governance at the community level.
- A large number of TAOs are established as legal entities and they are an important mechanism to community development.
- The success of TAOs will lay an important foundation for developing a more democratic society in the future.
- Community development can better serve the needs of local people as they can decide their own future.

6.2.4 Implications for Tourism Planning

Several enactments of laws and regulations created a new framework for restructuring national and local governance and for the reform of electoral and political processes. The reforms described above specifically require decentralisation and public participation, which will provide a new set of implications for tourism planning and marketing at local levels. These can be summarised in three areas, as follows:

1. Organisation and Administration. Local authorities have the freedom to manage tourism development and provide public services according to the needs of their constituents in the local community. This means local

authorities could create a tourism organisation within their administrative system which oversees directly the formulation and implementation of tourism development plans, personnel policy, as well as tourism budget and financial policy for their communities.

2. Duties and Responsibilities. The local authorities are responsible for tourism development and the conservation of tourism natural resources and environments in their local community. A Provincial and Local Action Plan for environmental management should be in accordance with a broader Environmental Quality Management Plan and should take into account social conditions in the area. Crucially, it emphasises public participation from all parties and at all levels. If implemented effectively, such a plan will have a significant impact on conserving and managing tourism resources in a more integrated and sustainable manner. More importantly, the national government is intended to provide full support by transferring appropriate functions (including delivery of public goods and services) as well as budget subsidies to the local government. The local government can collect certain taxes that a third party committee agrees upon, and this agreement will be reviewed every five years.

3. Public Participation. The Constitution indicates that people in local communities can monitor, control and oversee the results and performance of the local administration. It is the central and local governments' duty to promote the public participation in community development. For an

approval of any proposed tourism project within the community, the project manager should be able to show that some forms of public participation have been conducted. Based on this approach, much more consultation with community must be encouraged than has ever been the case previously. Otherwise, public officials or organisations that fail to perform their authorised duties may be sued by the local people as allowed by the Constitution. Furthermore, a total of 75 percent of the people who voted can impeach any local officials, and 50 percent of registered voters can propose a new community regulation.

6.3 Thai Tourism: A Summary

6.3.1 *Tourism Growth*

During the government of Prime Minister Field Marshall Sarit Thanarat (1957-1963), Thai tourism was recognised as an important industry and was encouraged systematically. The Tourism Organisation of Thailand (TOT) was established in 1959 (later renamed as the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT¹⁰) in 1979). TOT was assigned to take a leading role mainly in promoting Thailand as a destination to foreigners and at the same time encouraging domestic tourism.

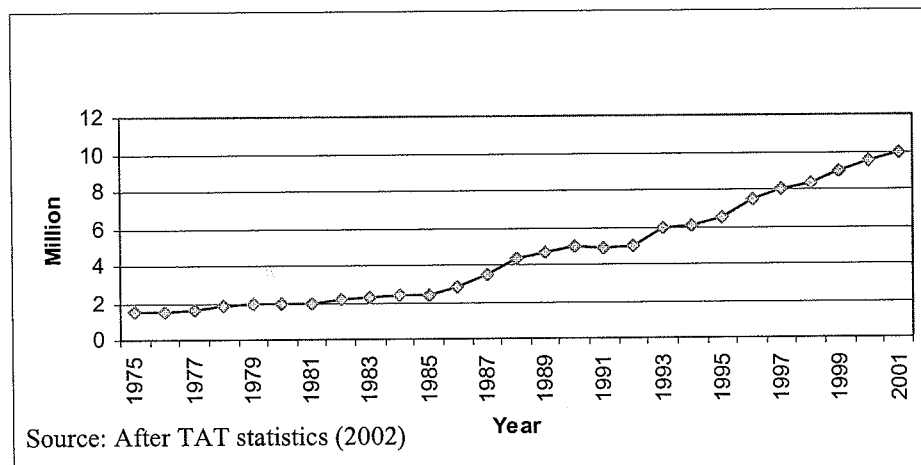
The most important boost for international tourism came during the Vietnam War, when American GI's visited Thailand as their principal destination for Rest and Recreation (R&R). Apart from Pat-Pong road in Bangkok, the GIs 'discovered' the small fishing village of Pattaya. It soon became one of the most popular Southeast Asian seaside resorts by the mid 1970s. The popularity of Pattaya was however short-lived owing to the rapid deterioration of its natural resources. The haphazard and unplanned growth of Pat-Pong Road and Pattaya has unfortunately created a marked image of Thailand, reflecting primarily sex and recreational activities from the mid-1960s onward (Cohen, 1996). Although Pattaya was soon replaced by the rapid development of Phuket in 1980s, the 'erotic' image it has created for Thailand remains widely recognised among travellers (ibid.).

¹⁰Details of TAT's roles are discussed in section 6.5.

Despite the rapid growth of the industry, the first national tourism plan was not initiated until 1976. The plan was formulated with the assistance of consultants from the Netherlands Institute of Tourism Development. This plan however remains mainly unimplemented. Nevertheless, the industry continues to grow, predominantly driven by private enterprises. To date, tourism in Thailand has been hailed as a ‘ticket to development’ - one of the country’s largest earners of foreign exchange. Tourism plays a major role in the Thai economy, and was particularly important in helping overcome the impact of the 1997 Asian economic crisis (TAT, 2001).

In the last three decades foreign tourist arrivals to Thailand have increased enormously, from about 600,000 in 1970 to more than 10 million visitors in 2001, earning up to 309,672 million baht or US\$7.74 billion (WTO, 2001). In 2001, though global tourism slumped after the September 11 terrorist attacks on the World trade Centre, Thailand still managed to end the year with arrivals of 10,061,950 visitors, up 5.82% over 2000. It was also the first time arrivals to Thailand crossed the ten million mark (see figure 7).

Figure 7: International Tourist Arrivals 1975-2001



Though Thailand has suffered from the Asian financial crisis and its aftermath in the last five years, the tourism industry still managed to keep up an average 7-8 per cent annual growth in the number of international tourist arrivals (TAT, 2002). According to TAT, there are a number of reasons for the steady growth in visitor arrivals, among them:

- The country's political and economic stability which has kept it free of the disturbances that have affected other parts of the Asia-Pacific;
- Visa-free or visa-on-arrival access for citizens of several countries;
- The quality and diversity of Thai tourism products and services;
- The favourable exchange rate which has made tourism products and shopping very good value for money;
- Thailand's geographical advantage as a major Asian aviation hub; strong cooperation with neighbouring countries in the Mekong region; ASEAN and South Asian regions; and as a half-way stopover between Europe and East Asia and Australia as well as a gateway to Indochina and Inner China;
- The hospitality and friendliness of Thai people.
- Thailand has a good mix of arrival source-markets between short-, medium- and long-haul countries, and is not over-exposed to only one region. Thus, when the Asian economic crisis of 1997 affected arrivals from the key source-markets of Japan, Korea and Taiwan, arrivals from Europe and North America remained

strong. In turn, when the events of September 11 affected arrivals from Europe and North America, arrivals from Korea, Australia and the ASEAN markets remained strong. At the same time, the new markets of China, India and the Middle East have also started generating significant visitor numbers, further bolstering the bottom line.

The exponential growth has been projected to continue steadily for the next two decades (as shown in table 9).

Table 9: Forecasts of Tourist Arrivals in Thailand by Main Markets

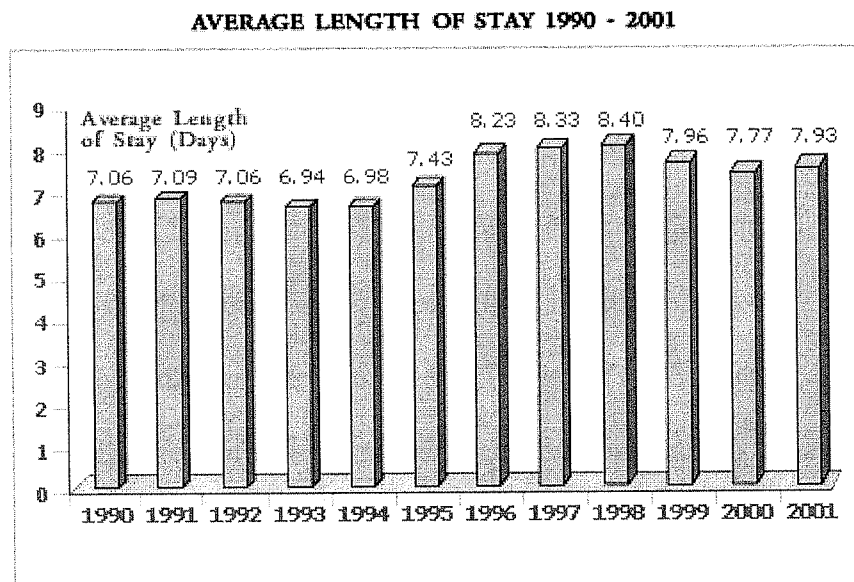
Origin Markets	Actual 2000 (‘000 Arrivals)	Forecasts		Growth Rates (% pa)	
		2010	2020	2000-2010	2010-2020
Malaysia	1,058	2077	4086	7.0	7.0
Japan	1207	2729	6170	8.5	8.5
Taiwan(P.C.)	712	866	1282	4.0	4.0
Korea Rep.	448	1001	2162	8.4	8.0
Singapore	660	1074	1923	5.0	6.0
China	704	1451	3435	7.5	9.0
Germany	388	728	1304	6.5	6.0
Hong Kong, China	495	1284	2526	10.0	7.0
United States	486	830	1417	5.5	5.5
United Kingdom	480	782	1274	5.0	5.0
Middle East	202	362	648	6.0	6.0
Others	2739	5447	10740	7.1	7.0
Total	9579	18631	36967	6.9	7.1

Source: WTO (2001) *“Sustainable Tourism Development for Thailand”*, p. xviii

While an important overall indicator of the growth of tourism, the Average Length of Stay (ALS) has not shown the same kind of dramatic increases as total visitor arrivals (see Figure 8 overleaf). This is because the last 10 years have seen the emergence of intense competition as many Asia-Pacific countries began promoting tourism. Increasingly some holidaymakers usually like to see as many countries as

possible in the limited time available; the ALS in each country they visit is therefore proportionately low. It is important to note that the ALS is the average between long-stayers such as European visitors and short-stayers such as Asian visitors.

Figure 8



Source: TAT statistics (2002)

The average length of stay remained more or less unchanged between 1990 (7.06 days) and 1994 (6.98 days) but rose strongly in 1995 (7.43) and 1996 (8.23). It remained stable at over eight days between 1996 and 1997 and reached the highest period of 8.40 days in 1998. However, it declined again to 7.96 days in 1999 and remained more or less the same in 2000 (7.77) and 2001 (7.93). The TAT is working with government agencies and the Thai private sector to boost the visitor ALS. These policies include; an improvement in tourism-related infrastructure and facilities, development of a variety of tourism products and services, a creation of marketing campaigns targeting various segments of long stay and high-spending visitors. TAT

has identified long-stay tourist segments as being senior citizens and film-producing teams.

6.3.2 Tourism Impacts

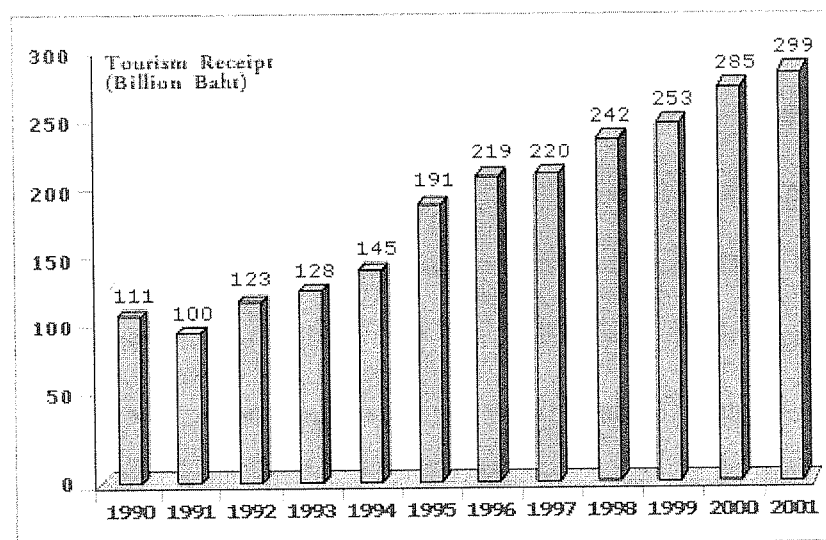
Economic Impacts

Research recently commissioned by TAT indicates that tourism directly provides more than 1.2 million jobs (4 per cent of the total employment) and through linkages with other economic sectors, 3.4 million indirect jobs (11 per cent of the total employment) related to tourism activities in Thailand (TAT, 2000). Taking account of the flow through effect of tourism in the Thai economy, tourism and related activities represent 11.4 per cent of GDP, 10.1 per cent of exports and 7.7 per cent of capital investment (Ibid).

Tourism was the country's top foreign exchange earner between 1982 and 1996. After 1997, it was overtaken by exports of computer parts. However, it still remains far ahead of earnings from agriculture. It is important to note that earnings from international tourism have increased steadily since 1990 - in Baht, but not in dollars or other major convertible foreign currencies. This is due to the Baht devaluation after the 1997 Asian financial crisis. Tourism earnings in Baht certainly kept many low-income Thai people working but were of limited help to the national treasury, which has to repay foreign debt in foreign currencies.

Figure 9

REVENUE FROM INTERNATIONAL VISITORS 1990 - 2001



Source: TAT statistics (2002)

Another reason for the fall in actual foreign-exchange earnings is that international visitors are spending less per visit. This is held to be due to deteriorating economic conditions in their countries of origin. The figure above shows that tourism earnings in baht declined significantly in 1991 (-9.56%) as a result of the overall decline in visitor arrivals due to the then Gulf War but rebounded strongly by 23.13 % in 1992 and 31.37% in 1995. The Asian economic crisis resulted in only a small 0.63% growth in baht earnings in 1997. Calculated in baht, revenues from tourism have increased every year between 1992 and 2001. Calculated in dollars, the earnings of US\$ 6.73 billion in 2001 (when the baht was 44 to the US\$) are well below the earnings of US\$ 7.66 billion in 1995 (25 baht to the US\$) and the peak of US\$ 8.66 billion in 1996. In 2001, international visitors spent an average of 3,747.87 baht per person per day (or US\$84.35). This contributed a total of 299.05 billion baht (US\$7.74 billion) in tourism revenue to the Thai economy. In 2001, of the total

spending per person per day, 30.97 percent (1,160.86 baht) was on shopping and 26.04 percent (975.80 baht) on accommodation (TAT statistics)

Approximately 70 percent of the tourism revenue benefits hospitality and tourism-related businesses outside Bangkok. This helps disseminate revenue to local people by boosting investment in rural areas and assists thousands of Thai Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs). The TAT continues to implement different campaigns to boost visitor spending, especially on Thai-made products. Two shopping festivals are organised annually namely 'Amazing Thailand Grand Sale' in June-July and the 'Amazing Shopping Streets' in December-January. Value Added Tax (VAT) refunds are also now being offered to visitors aiming to further encourage their spending.

Socio-Cultural and Environmental Impacts

The economic gains from tourism development come with costs however. A recent survey conducted by TAT has shown that 179 touristic locations in 49 provinces are degenerating and need revitalisation (Tourism Vision, 2000). Factors such as high tourist density, wastes, inflation, and destruction of national forests have been reported. Pattaya is a classic example of the rapid deteriorating conditions of a once-booming destination. Despite the accelerated development of tourism and negative outcomes learned from the Pattaya case, its impact upon the social and environment in Thailand became a matter of broad public attention only recently

(Therapat, 2002). It is not surprising therefore to be able to observe today a process of 'Pattayasation' on Phuket island, and to a lesser degree on Koh Samui. Both islands are facing the same dilemma, being in danger of becoming over-developed without the appropriate infrastructure, policy, and control mechanisms being put in place. For example, the issue of water supply shortage has already been reported in three major resort islands (Phuket, Koh Chang in Trat and Koh Samui in Surat Thani). On Koh Samui, for instance, the annual water demand is 3.1 million cubic metres whereas the water supply is already inadequate in the dry season. The situation is worsening; a study by Core Planning and Development Co. forecasts that the island's population will reach 55,900 in 2006, and about 1.7 million visitors will arrive, pushing water demand up to 4.1 million cubic metres (Theparat, 2002).

Tourism development in Thailand has also engendered harder-to-measure social and cultural effects. Specifically, the number of women engaging in tourist-oriented prostitution appears to have expanded in parallel with the growth of mass tourism. While prostitution in Thailand was outlawed in 1960, the availability of sexual services to tourists in Thailand is still widely known and visible around bars, cocktail lounges and massage parlours, catering primarily to foreigners. Reliable data on the number of prostitutes in Thailand, whether in the past or present, are notoriously difficult to obtain. Boonchalaksi and Guest (1994:29) claim that the range of women engaging in tourist-oriented prostitution is between 70,000 and 2.8 million. At that time, the Thai police estimate the number at about 175,000 (*ibid.*). While the increasing awareness of the danger of AIDS has to some extent alleviated the

problem, child prostitution has become more pervasive as children are believed to be safer (Johnson 1994). The 1999 annual survey conducted by the Venereal Disease Control (reported in Bangkok Post 3 August 1999) showed that the number of child prostitutes had risen from 4.4 percent to 5.3 percent of total prostitutes. It is estimated that there are 12,000 child prostitutes in the country (ibid). According to the survey, most sexual establishments were concentrated in Bangkok (1,996) with estimated 27,497 sex workers. Excluding Bangkok, Banglamung district in Chon Buri has the most sexual establishments (641), followed by Kathu district in Phuket (188), Muang district in Pattani (161), Muang district in Phuket (158) and Hay Yai district in Songkhla (156). It is obvious then that TAT's promotional campaigns have not had much an impact on changing the 'erotic' image of Thailand set previously, during the arrival of American GIs.

Unbalanced distribution of tourism development is also evident. In the past, tourism development was concentrated only in and around Bangkok (Tourism Vision, 2000). This pattern has been changed slowly. Only in the late 80s, tourism started to emerge outside the capital, contributing to economic development of five main provinces: Phuket, Chonburi-Pattaya, Chiangmai, Suratthani-Samui, and Hatyai-Songkla¹¹. While tourism growth provides employment for these areas, at the same time it causes an influx of local immigrants from other provinces. In Phuket, for instance, non-registered migration on the island numbers about 50,000 (Bangkok Post,

May 22, 2002). These people live in unhygienic surroundings without adequate utilities, posing a health threat and, to some extent, criminal threat to the local people. As they are not registered as residents of Phuket, official funding is not allocated to improve their living conditions. To overcome this problem, the present Government has stated its intention to distribute the benefits of tourism more evenly throughout the country (Tourism Master Plan for 2001-2006). WTO (2001) warned that without a proper plan this intention would however involve bringing tourists into further contact with fragile communities and environments.

With respect to the use of the natural environment, Thailand has relied almost entirely on its natural and historical endowments to attract tourists. This reliance makes the industry similar to mining or any other extractive industry in that it is not likely to be sustainable without adequate investment combined with prudent and careful management of natural and historical resources¹². In recent years, Government

¹¹ Three of these main provinces (Phuket, Surattani-Samui and Hatyai-Songkla) were selected for further case analysis of this research and will be introduced shortly.

¹² In an effort to combat the worsening environmental conditions, the Environmental Act of 1992 has been promulgated as the main law to deal with environmental conditions. According to the Environmental Act of 1992, the Minister of Science Technology and Environment with the approval of the National Environment Board will have the power to issue the notification prescribing of categories and magnitude of projects or activities of government agency, state enterprise or private project which are required to submit Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) report to the Office of Environmental Policy and Planning and the Expert Review Committee for consideration and approval before further proceedings. Several types and sizes of projects or activities requiring EIA reports are related to tourism development. The projects listed include dams or reservoirs, irrigation, commercial airports, hotels or resorts, mass transit systems and expressways, mining, industrial estates or projects like characteristic of industrial estate, commercial port and harbour, thermal power plant, coastal reclamation, highway or road, residential condominium, land allocation, hospital, building in area adjacent to rivers, lakes or beaches or in the vicinity of National Park or Historical Park and specific industrial projects, namely, petrochemical, oil refinery, natural gas separation or processing, alkaline, iron and/or steel, cement, smelting other than iron and steel, pulp industry, pesticide industry or industry producing active ingredient by chemical process, chemical fertilizer industry using chemical process in production, all

sponsored mega projects, such as the Eastern and Southern Seaboard, which support manufacturing industries, have slowly penetrated those areas considered to be prime locations for tourism. As a result, it has been evident that competition for resources between the tourism and manufacturing sectors has intensified. In addition to environmental stress, rapidly increasing demand for tourism also competes for infrastructure improvement funding. One can conceive that natural resources and the environment are strained not only because they are used as production inputs for the tourism industry, but also because they must absorb the outputs from other industries. Nevertheless, TAT and the office of Environmental Policy and Planning have noted the difficulty (and/or the lack of effort) in obtaining specific data on environmental impacts, which have been caused directly by tourism development¹³, especially at local areas. Without comprehensive data and/or information provided for policy makers and planners, environmental and social management will remain a difficult area of tourism planning and marketing.

The above range of tourism impacts is not exhaustive. Nevertheless, they provide a clear 'snapshot' of unwanted social and environmental consequences from a haphazard and unplanned tourism development. Despite the serious indications of

types of projects in the watershed area (Telephone conversation with an officer of the Office of Environmental Policy and Planning on 24 March 2003).

¹³ The comment was made during the telephone conversation with officers from both agencies on 24 March 2003 in an attempt to obtain statistics relating to environmental impacts of three selected destination areas.

environmental and social problems, proper tourism planning is slow to be put into action. Questions remain as to whether an attempt towards the political reforms and community self-governance will create a new platform for a stronger commitment towards community participation and tourism development in a more sustainable manner.

6.4 Context of the selected destinations/Sites

Three destination areas were selected for further case analysis. The context of these selected destinations (summarised in table 10 overleaf) was synthesised from variety of sources including personal observations, interviews with respondents at local areas combined with available (but limited) secondary data. These three destination areas were selected on the basis that they are well established destination or resort areas, and make significant contributions to the overall development of Thai tourism. While Samui and Phuket are more recognised in a wider international market, Songkla-Hatyai was selected to contrast those two areas in the sense that it only captures short-stayer tourists across the Malaysian border. Being well established, these three destinations provide rich practical backgrounds on how tourism has been planned and marketed as well as opportunities to examine community engagement in the planning process.

Table 10: Case Study Areas Main Characteristics

	Phuket	Samui	Songkla-Hatyai
Population**	231,206	56,000	1,159,672
Tourism Image***	Sun, Sea, Sand and Sex	Sun, Sea, Sand and Sex	Urban Shopping and Night Entertainments
Stage of development***	Maturity Well-developed super-structure	Maturity Well-developed super-structure	Maturity Well-developed super-structure
Tourism impacts***	Crowding Prostitution Water shortages Waste Seasonal/Non-registered Migration	Prostitution Water shortages Waste Traffic jams Road accidents Seasonal/Non-registered Migration	Prostitution Increased price level Crime Narcotics Traffic jams
Nature of Business ownership and investment***	Attracted major investment both from Thai and international investors	Attracted major investment both from Thai and international investors	Mainly locally owned and joint investment with Malaysians
Number of tourists arrivals in 2001*	2,712,385	713,643	1,009,015
Tourism Revenue (Million Baht)*	59,258.36	9,376.71	7,602.80
Rooms*	26,759	9,256	9,174

*Source: TAT statistics, 2001

** Source: UNDP, 2002

***Source: Personal Observation

- **Samui Island (*Koh Samui*)**

The island (or *Koh* in Thai language) of Samui lies in the Gulf of Thailand, 600 km. south of Bangkok, and is a district of Surat Thani province. Koh Samui is the Kingdom's third largest island after Phuket and Koh Chang. The island is 28 km. from the mainland. Before tourism development in Koh Samui the island was a major producer of coconuts and partly processed coconut products for export to the Thai mainland and other countries. Over 95 percent of the island's agricultural land was

used for coconut production, and most of the island's approximately 30,000 inhabitants were engaged in coconut plantation and related industries.

Prior to tourism development, Koh Samui was kept distance from outsiders. A social analysis contained in the only tourism master plan for Koh Samui (1985, p. 2-24) reported that

“(d)ue to being an island, the communication between Koh Samui and the mainland in the past was difficult. This resulted in the island being a semi-closed society for a long time. The social relations of the whole island (was) based on close ties between relatives and friends. Moreover, Koh Samui's population had a reasonable income from coconut orchards and the cost of living was low. There were moreover no nightclubs and similar facilities. These factors contributed to Koh Samui's simple and peaceful society. The island's inhabitants are friendly and take pride in being islanders. They also have a strong belief in their tradition”

Tourism development effectively began with the arrival of low budget travellers in the early 1970s. Some owners of orchards built bungalows for tourists and started restaurants, car hiring and taxi services, as well as selling souvenirs. Until early 1980s, these were small-scale businesses and the local people operated 90 per cent of them (Master plan, 1985). The infrastructure at the time was underdeveloped: there was no airport and connections with the mainland depended on slow and uncomfortable 2-hour ferries. As is common on remote islands, the indigenous population of Samui was able to maintain a strong sense of identity, at least until late 1980s (Cohen, 1996).

In 1989, a rapid tourism boost took place with the establishment of Bangkok Airways, flying from Bangkok to Samui several times a week. Koh Samui now can be easily accessed from Bangkok, Phuket or directly from overseas. The number of international tourists arrivals in 2001 had increased to 713,643 (TAT statistics). From the interview with selected community members, it was indicated that people in Samui are mostly positive about tourism; in fact they want more tourists.



There are a number of beautiful beaches on the island. Chaweng Beach, located on the east coast, is the most developed area on the island. The beach is approximately 7 Km long, with powdery white sand. It has been observed that the central part of the beach has become crowded. Many vendors pass by offering beverages, fruit, ice cream and local Thai food. The beach itself has to be accessed through the hotels, as there are no beach roads for public access to the area. Parallel to the beach, clustered in the middle of a strip, lies a concentration of restaurants, bars, souvenir shops, fast food (American franchises such as KFC, McDonald, Pizza Hut) and convenience stores. The President of Samui hotel association gave a current general business scenario on the Island as follows:

“local residents are still operating many hotels and resorts on the Island. We have become more internationalised. The Island has increasingly attracted foreign investors and Thai investors from outside the Island. About half of the investors are in fact farangs (Foreigners) from all over the world like Italy, Australia, Switzerland and so on. Farangs can blend in (work) with the local Thais very well. Farang have opened up several restaurants and different kinds of businesses here. In fact, a lots of environmental awareness campaigns are initiated by them (Farangs). Some have married to Thais so they have become just like Thai themselves.”

Tourism development has engendered a significant rise in land value. In the case of land around Chaweng beach, an interview with a local resident revealed that before tourism development took place, the price of land in this area reflected its low agricultural quality at only 3,000 Baht per rai¹⁴ (\$US68) while the price of land elsewhere was almost 10,000 Baht per rai (\$US227). However, today Chaweng beach becomes a main area for tourism development, where resort and hotels accommodations and attractions located, and naturally pushed the present price of land in this area to approximately 10 millions Baht per rai (\$US227,273). As one local resident stated;

"In the past, nobody wants to buy land around Chaweng. We cannot grow anything there. Soil is not good. Land is cheap. The beach is nice though. Now, whoever owns the land there becomes so rich, they can just rent the land out to Farang"

A conversation with a tourist revealed a present (and interesting) image of Koh Samui which is widely renowned among international tourists:

"I arrived in Koh Samui on Tuesday after an overnight trip on an air conditioned bus. Pretty much the entire bus was full of backpackers, with the exception of a pretty Thai prostitute who sat near the front and kept to herself. I sat next to an English bloke who had come to Thailand for the "Full Moon Party," a monthly bash on Koh Phangan. He told me it's like a British Rave party. Lots of dancing and drugs, I need to find some Ecstasy; there's supposed to be a lot here. Have you heard of a special item catering to the party crowd, "Magic Mushrooms...?".

¹⁴ It is more common to use the term *RAI* to measure the land in Thailand. One rai equals 0.4 acre or 1,600 m².

With reference to Butler's evolutionary model (1980), Samui should be classified as reaching a fifth stage of being consolidated. This is the most critical stage because from this point onward the future looks uncertain. Tourists have explored the place extensively which means they have a good knowledge of the area. The destination is becoming less fashionable, and the ability to attract new tourists is reduced. From personal observation, the island has increasingly showed serious social, economic, and environmental problems. With the tourism boom, a local resident observed that the destruction of coral and marine life is taking place rapidly. Water activities such as boating and scuba diving, and waste dumping by hotels and restaurants, as well as the uncontrolled building of tourist facilities on the island are reported to be the main causes. A local business member stated that,

"Unfortunately, the very fragile coastal, marine and island environment upon which tourism has been built has come under increasing pressure as a result of the largely uncontrolled, and hardly anticipated, tourism boom. The phenomenal amount of construction work which has taken place over the last decade or so has proceeded uncontrolled. Building restrictions have been largely ignored, often quite willfully. As a result, the coastal landscape, so important an element of the visual environment, has been changed quite dramatically".

A TAT official informed that to deal with the deterioration of the island, Koh Samui recently has been registered to undertake the Green Globe 21 certification programme for sustainable travel and tourism. The programme is dedicated to help the Travel & Tourism industries around the world develop in sustainable ways in which the environment, well being and the way of life for local people and for visitors is improved. In working towards these goals, steps such as efforts to increase the level of environmental awareness among the community and the establishment of a

management system to reduce the volume of solid wastes are being taken to achieve certification. The Green Globe 21 Samui programme sets out to cultivate a sense of pride and ownership and preserve the local traditions and way of life, and other unique aspects of the community. It is established as a framework for action and steers the island towards the attainment of world standards in environmental protection and conservation.

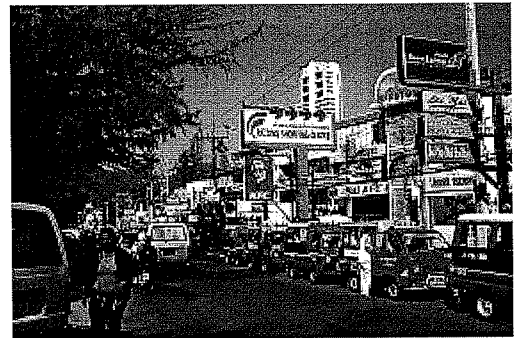
- **Phuket: Patong Beach**

This island is the biggest island in Thailand, located in the Andaman Sea on the west coast of Thailand. Phuket government is divided into 3 districts (or Amphur); Amphur Muang (Phuket Town), Amphur Thalang and Amphur Kathu. It has registered population of about 150,000. Phuket is one of the most affluent provinces in Thailand. Prior to tourism development, the tin mining industry and rubber plantations provided the main source of income. However during the 1970s a slump in agricultural and mining activities took place; tourism development was then seen as a necessary alternative for further economic growth of the province (Phuket Tourism Master Plan, 1976)

Commercial tourism development started in the early 1970s and continues to grow. Since early 1990s, it has been placed on a world map as a 'must visit' resort destination in Southeast Asia. In contrast to Samui, Phuket is more easily accessible; several direct international flights from major cities in Europe and around the world

are available. The number of tourists increased steeply from 1.3 million in 1991 to 2.7 million in 2001. Using Butler's model (1980), the island is arguably in its mature stage (consolidation stage) though, particularly if reference is being made to the most popular beach-Patong. Patong (banana plantation) has the largest concentration of visitors on Phuket Island. It is the most developed of all Phuket's beaches where a large number of international hotel chains, discotheques, bars, and several tourist-oriented shops are located. Even with a cursory glance, the area displays several negative social impacts with much activity focusing on sex tourism.

Similar to Chaweng beach on Koh Samui, vendors have staked out the beach, selling everything including massage services, food, beverages, fresh fruit, clothes, jewelry, electric power tools.



Elsewhere Phuket Island remains less commercialised, particularly the southern part of the island (as shown in adjacent photo).

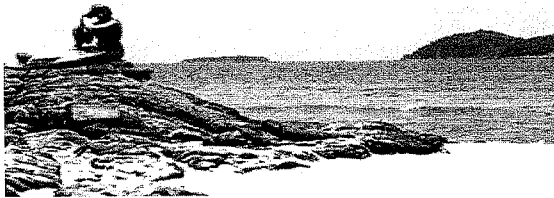
Recently, the government has aimed at turning Phuket into an international city in an effort to generate an extra 50 billion baht annually from tourism. It was claimed that the extra money is needed to help ease the country's financial state. A cautious plan is needed to achieve this, as it is evident that excess tourism has already placed a heavy

drain on natural resources. There once was an estimated 170,000 rai (272km²) of inland and mangrove forests on Phuket but the area under cover now has shrunk to just 20,000 rai (32km²), and another 500 rai is lost every year (Bangkok Post, May 22, 2002). The National Research Council of Thailand (1995) revealed that during 8 years (1987 -1995) mangrove forest has been deteriorated about 4km² or about 19 % caused by shrimp farming, urban expansion, tourism development and tin mining. Ratanasempong et al. (1995) also observed that forested land, rubber plantation, coconut and mixed orchard and paddy land on Phuket Island have been decreased and transformed to be urbanised area for several mega tourism projects.

Phuket is now notorious for its high number of Aids inflicted residents and immigrants. It was the 20th worst affected province in 1996, but today it is second only to Phayao countrywide and is the worst affected in the South (Bangkok Post, 3 August 1999). One can, perhaps, only realistically conclude that tourism has been enacted with a net loss to the local community. There also are political problems. One community member stated,

“Local bodies are heavily influenced by local gang-lords and corrupt politicians. This has contributed to the mismanagement of the natural resources. The local bodies only protect the interests of their overlords. For example, attempts to introduce zoning, which would bar activities damaging to the environment, such as shrimp farms and elephants treks for tourists, have consistently been rejected. Shrimp farms continue to encroach on forest reserves, while the elephants destroy the coral when carrying tourists into the sea.”

- **Hatyai/Songkla**



Songkhla, 950 km. south of Bangkok, is a border province in Southern Thailand, adjoining the state of Kedah in Malaysia.

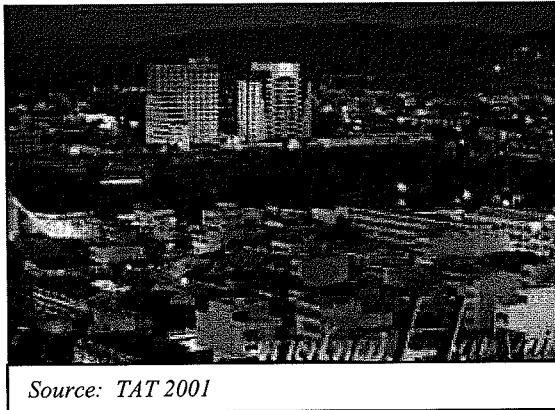
It has been known as a principal seaport and coastal trading post. As a historic

town, Songkhla contains ancient ruins, arts, and rich cultural heritage. Songkhla also has fine beaches, waterfalls, and a lake. An outstanding feature here is the bronze statue of a mermaid, which is located on the three kilometers Samila beach. While Songkhla is noted for its fishery industry, Hat Yai, the major district of the province, serves as a transportation and communications hub of the South. This bustling town is only 30 kilometres from the Malaysian boarder.

Economic development of both cities (Hatyai and Songkla) is very interdependent and therefore difficult to analyse in isolation. Prior to tourism development, rubber plantations and fisheries provided the main source of income. According to the president of Hatyai-Songkla Hotel association, tourism businesses and development took place when the first locally owned hotel (the President Hotel) was built about 1970. Since then, tourism development has grown steadily. TAT statistics (cited in Thailand Tourism, 2000) showed that tourism income generated in this province is ranked the fifth after Bangkok, Phuket, Chon Buri (Pattaya) and Chiang Mai respectively. In 2001, the number of tourist arrivals was recorded at

1,009,015. The city has attracted mainly Malaysian and Singaporean tourists. Malaysians in fact constitute the largest group of foreign visitors to Thailand. For these reasons, together with Hatyai, TAT has identified Songkla as one of the most important destinations for foreign visitors in Thailand.

Different from a 'sun sea sand and sex' image of Phuket and Samui, Malaysians and Singaporeans are attracted to Hatyai by its urbanised characteristics,



Source: TAT 2001

which revolve around nightclubs, bars, pubs, discotheques, karaoke lounges, shopping malls and cinemas. Hatyai is also popular for its varieties of Thai and Chinese food such as sharks' fin soup, birds'

nest, fish maw, poached duck, fried pigeon, barbecued squid, and deep-fried prawns. Tourist's areas are concentrated on the three parallel roads of Niphat Uthit 1, Niphat Uthit 2, and Niphat Uthit 3 where hotels, department stores and restaurants are located. These roads are narrow and always too crowded during weekends and Malaysia's public holidays. One hotel manager informed that:

"Most Malaysians are here for their weekend break. They are from Kedah, very close to Hatyai. Most of them are traveling here by bus or self drive through the border. (They are in Hatyai) just to enjoy cheaper good food and shopping. Most hotels here are normally full during weekends and very quiet during weekdays.... Although we have nice waterfall and Samila beach, we hardly see any Malays (Malaysians tourists) there."

Tourism business investors are mainly locals who have previously involved in construction projects. Hatyai/Songkla has no international hotel chain, except the only Thai hotel chain (Central Hotels and Resorts Group) operating under the name Novotel Central Sukhontha Hatyai. The president of Hatyai-Songkla Hotel association informed that,

“Most hotels owners here have known each other since they were a little child. Our families are just friends. But most of the owners are not really in tourism business. They still sell rooms like selling food. Tourists can bargain the room rate if they walk in. Sometimes the room rate is so different from one tourist to the others”.

Similar to Chaweng beach on Koh Samui and Patong beach on Phuket, vendors have staked out the three main tourist streets, selling everything including food, beverages, fresh fruit, clothes, jewelry. From personal observation, it was found that most of these street vendors have occupied not only the footpath but also a part of the street itself. It can also be easily observed that a large number of mini buses (*Tuk Tuk*), which can stop and pick up passengers anywhere on the street, have created traffic jams, noise and air pollution. A local resident stated that,

“Tuk Tuk prefers Malays because they pay more. Sometimes they were on the absolute right lane, if they see Malays, they can just simply go straight to the left lane to park and pick up Malays”

Hat Yai district is ranked the fifth as a place where sexual establishments (156 places) have become visible tourist attractions. From an interview with local a tourism business, it has been indicated that most involved prostitutions are not Hat Yai residents, they in fact come from the northern part of Thailand. Nevertheless, Hatyai

now has a high number of Aids inflicted residents (Bangkok Post, 3 August 1999). A local resident commented that;

“we (residents) can tell who is the tourist because they always come with a northern looking girl. They look very different from southern girls. We are much darker... (Laugh)”

- **Key issues of tourism impacts and management at the local level**

The researcher found that there is a lack of detailed information and knowledge about tourism impacts at the three selected local cases. For instance, with respect to environmental management of the three destination areas, there has been no indication that any significant or thorough investigation of stage or status of the impacts has (yet) been conducted. The entire environment and social impacts caused by tourism development have been assessed mainly on unscientific observations of different organisations and media (i.e TAT, local businesses, and local newspapers). Without a comprehensive study, it would be difficult for policy makers and planners to make an informed decision on environmental and social management. In the long run, the continued degradation of the environment will inevitably cause the tourists to choose other destinations that are more pristine. As this has already been the case, Phuket and Samui Islands are becoming more and more overdeveloped, pushing more tourists on to new, less developed islands such as Krabi beaches, Koh Tao and Koh Phi Phi. Without a proper plan, unfortunately these beautiful places will soon go through the same process. Thus, to manage tourism into the future, greater efforts

must be made to gather comprehensive data on local issues which can be linked to national tourist policies and programmes.

6.5 Tourism Organisation for Planning and Marketing: *From National to Local level*

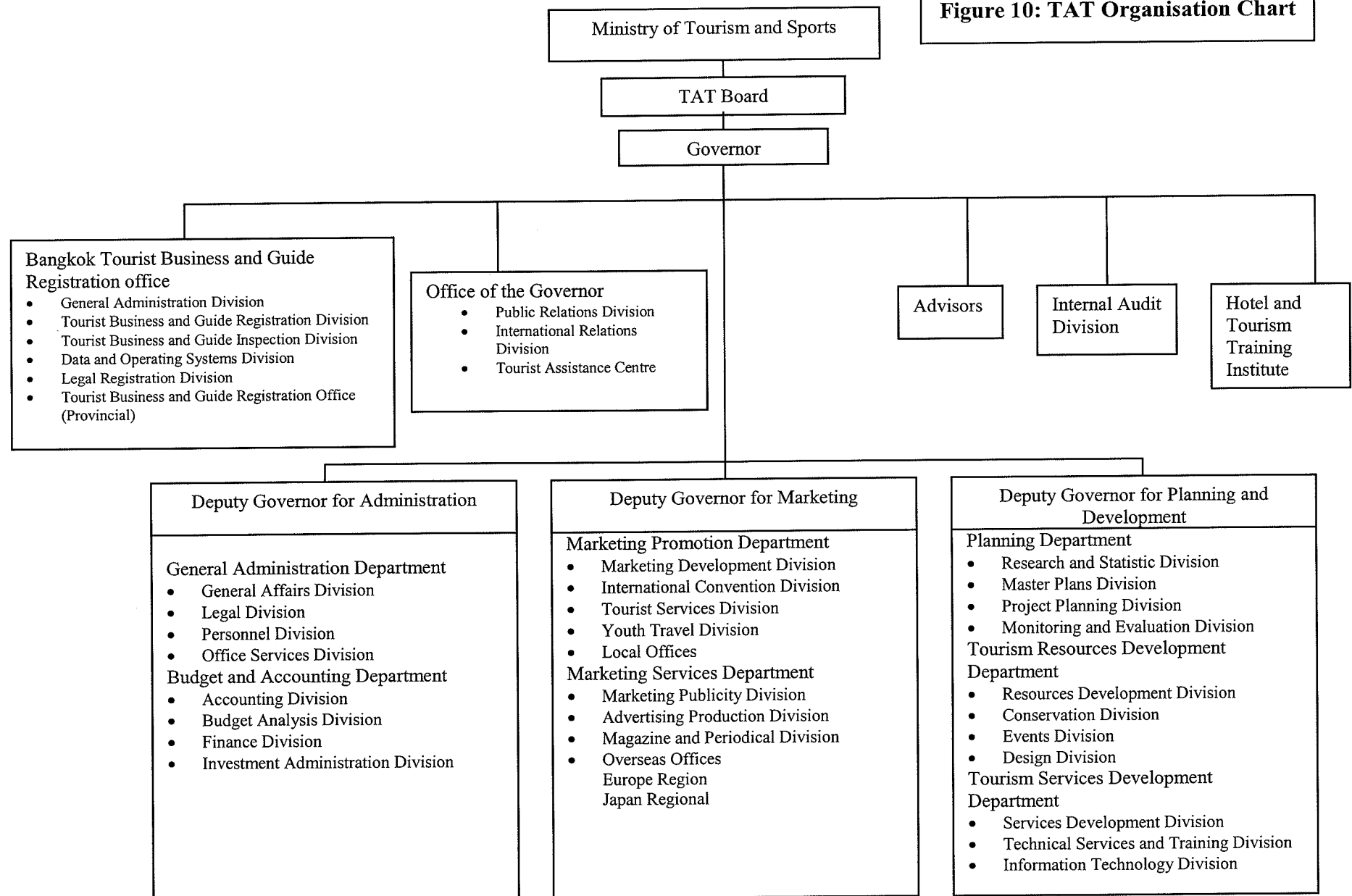
It has been suggested that government intervention is needed in tourism in order to provide adequate planning mechanisms, and to correct market failures such as the negative externalities of tourism on the community and environment (Hall, 1999). There are different organisational structures for government intervention or involvement in tourism in differing countries around the world (WTO, 1979, Pearce, 1992). Generally, it has been observed that a separate ministry for tourism is justified when tourism has become (or is expected and desired to become) an important sector of the economy (Inskeep 1991). In Thailand, despite the economic significance of tourism, a ministry for tourism has been established only recently (October 2002) under the name of *Ministry of Tourism and Sports*. As the Ministry has only been established, its roles and policy are yet to be articulated and advanced¹⁵. Meanwhile, The Tourism Authority of Thailand, a state enterprise, is the only key planning and marketing agency for all levels (national, regional, and local). To understand the planning and marketing process of Thai tourism is therefore necessary to understand

¹⁵ This thesis will base an analysis on the TAT's function and structure prior to the establishment of the Ministry because during the undertaking of this research the transferring of tourism planning knowledge and expertise from TAT to the Ministry of Tourism and Sports office is still in progress. To fulfill the purpose of this study, TAT officers with their previous planning and marketing responsibilities could provide clearer perspectives on both tourism planning and marketing at national and local levels.

TAT's structure (as shown in Figure 10, p 152), its functions and its interactions with other related planning entities (Figure 11, p.155), from national to local levels, particularly at the selected destination areas.

The government-appointed Governor of TAT is a member of the TAT Board of Directors. The members currently serving on the Board are made up of representatives from both the commercial and public tourism sectors including: Thai Airways International Public Company Ltd., Pearl Group of Companies, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Transport and Communications, Office of Environmental Policy and Planning, Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, Director of the Bureau of the Budget, and Ministry of Interior.

Figure 10: TAT Organisation Chart



The present national policy guidelines outlined in the 9th National Economic and Social Development Plan, as formulated by the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), provides the framework within which TAT undertakes a central coordinating role and assumes responsibilities for tourism development. Its vision also has the following guidelines –the Tourism Authority of Thailand Act of 1979, the Tourist Business and Guide Act of 1992, and the government’s tourism policies. At present, the TAT’s mission set out to serve 1997-2003 National Economic and Social Development Plan is,

“to promote the conservation and revival of the arts, culture and tourism resources alongside the environment by placing priority on the quality of sustainable tourism development to enable it to cater to the long-term increase of visitors while retaining the national identity and heritage”.

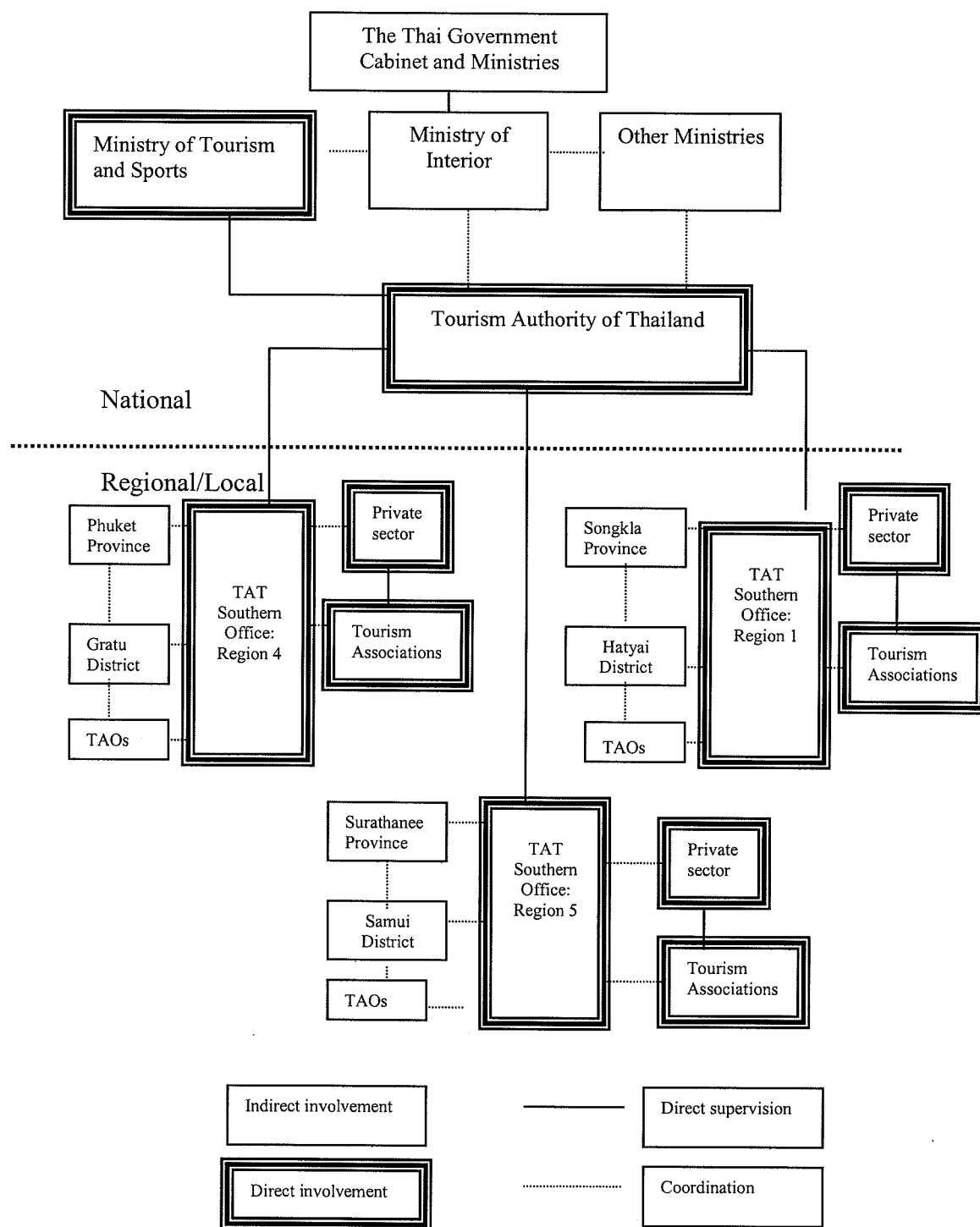
The above broad mission provides a framework upon which two principle goals and more specific commitments to ten key areas were formulated. These are;

- *To pursue recognition for Thailand as a world-class tourism destination; and*
 - *To develop a unique ‘brand image’ which is a seamless blend of charismatic, traditional Thai qualities and internationally recognised standards*
- 1) The preservation of areas of natural beauty throughout the Kingdom*
 - 2) The preservation of Thai culture and traditions*
 - 3) Working towards a pollution-free environment*
 - 4) The assurance of safety and security nationally*
 - 5) The attainment of international standards of service*
 - 6) The development of essential tourism infrastructure and the provision of basic utilities and modern facilities*
 - 7) The readiness and willingness of the local population to deliver superior service and fulfil their role as ‘The perfect Host’*
 - 8) The provision of integrated communication systems*

- 9) *The availability of a global telecommunications network in key cities*
- 10) *Raising the overall standard of living for the general population and ensuring that the benefits of tourism development are far-reaching enough to bring about a better quality of life for a larger segment of the population, especially the rural communities throughout Thailand.*

The emphasis given to the above vastly different goals is reflected in the structure of the TAT, which has three main divisions: administration; marketing; and planning and development. TAT also has a total of 39 regional and overseas offices. These offices focus their efforts on supporting visitor targets and plans envisaged by TAT headquarters in Bangkok. Regional offices are responsible for a set of designated areas. For example, Phuket is under the management of TAT Southern office region 4 which is also in charge of Phangnga and Krabi. Figure 11 illustrates the tourism organisations and the relationships of different organisations from national to local levels, particularly concerned with the three selected destination areas; Phuket, Samui and Hatyai-Songkla. This figure should also be viewed with reference to the structure of local government as depicted earlier in Figure 6 (p.119).

Figure 11: Relationships between TAT and Other Related Organisations



Practically, TAT headquarters, through its regional offices, advises all involved parties on policy, planning and marketing issues relevant to tourism development. At the provincial and local levels, despite the necessity of their direct involvement, none of the local governments at any of three selected areas had established a responsible body devoted to tourism matters within their management system. TAT's regional offices are therefore left to take a leading role in tourism planning and marketing at local levels. To be effective, these organisations, which have only four to five staff, must act as a coordinating body between a large number of involved parties both at the local (horizontal) and national (vertical) levels. For instance, these organisations range from the central TAT office, local governments, private enterprises, tourism associations or groups, educational institutions, and others indirectly related to tourism. Numerous forms of private tourism groups existed at all three sites. One thing all of these organisations have in common has been a tendency to focus their efforts on advertising and promotions, with few (if any) resources directed at planning per se.

6.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter provides descriptive information about the selected case studies. Currently, several significant movements are taking place to enlist community participation in Thailand. Three key points should be noted: (1) A historical background of the centralised structure of the Thai Government which will be difficult to change; (2) The recent reforms towards decentralisation for better local government and; (3) Growth-oriented approach toward tourism planning and marketing is dominant which has resulted

in notable social and environmental impacts. The next chapter will present data collected from the interviews, which help elicit the relationship and potential integration of planning and marketing within a community driven approach.

CHAPTER 7 RESULTS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has highlighted that Thai tourism and its development is largely unregulated, highly diversified, complex, and a changing phenomenon, the impacts and consequences of which have to be gauged within the wider process of economic development, political reform and social change in Thai society. These complexities inevitably have significant bearing on the approaches by which Thai tourism is planned and marketed. Using contemporary tourism planning and marketing literature reviewed in previous chapters as a framework, Thailand's current tourism planning and marketing approaches will be evaluated and addressed in the first section.

The specific aim of this chapter is to inform, to what extent, theories discussed and the prescriptive model proposed in previous chapters, are able to be implemented at a destination area with a broad planning and marketing mandate. From the synthesis of data obtained from a variety of sources, planning/marketing issues and challenges will be discussed. All data and information will then be analysed and interpreted in aggregate to identify restraining issues, which may have impeded the implementation of a community-driven tourism planning approach in Thailand.

7.2 Tourism Planning and Marketing Approach: Gaps between Theoretical Advances and Pragmatic Issues

An evaluation of contemporary tourism planning and marketing approaches in Thailand is a stepping-stone, as it will provide a benchmarking for further analysis on how the current tourism planning and marketing approaches could be integrated and progressed in a more participatory form or manner. A number of approaches to tourism planning and marketing (as reviewed in chapter 2 and 3) have advocated that planning for tourism should be a continuous process, systems oriented, integrated within the overall planning of an area, include environmental and community considerations, and be pragmatic in application. In line with this argument, a 'community-driven marketing' approach should also be envisaged within the wider planning process. In other words, devising marketing plan should be viewed as a component of the national plan and tourism planning process (see discussion in chapter 4 and 5). It is therefore argued that if the national progress toward community based planning encounters obstacles, it is highly likely that participatory approach will not be applied effectively to market planning within it.

Using an evaluative criterion developed from tourism planning and marketing literature reviewed (see chapter 2 and 3), key considerations are listed on the left column of table 11 (p.161) as a checklist for the proposed participatory approach. This checklist is not exhaustive but it is used to enlighten two key concerns.

1. The relationship between tourism planning and marketing functions

2. Level or status of community participation in tourism planning and marketing

Available tourism plans from national, and local (three selected destination areas) levels were content analysed. Data obtained from interviews were used to verify materials and helped interpret the archives. Drawing from tourism planning and marketing literature reviewed, the evaluation was based on three classifications.

- (1) Any planning and marketing item was classified as 'YES' if data from any source indicated that (a) the TAT has taken that planning and marketing issue into consideration and (b) there have been evidence of comprehensive information for implementation.
- (2) On the opposite side, if the item has not been mentioned anywhere or there have been no evidence of such issues being taken into consideration, that planning and marketing item was rated as 'No'.
- (3) Partial was used to rate any item, which has been 'partially' considered but some parts of its key principles may have been omitted.

As noted in the previous chapter, the current Tourism Master Plan was prepared as a part of the 9th National Economic and Social Development Plan (NESDP) 2002-2006. Factors included in the Tourism Master Plan, such as equitable distribution of tourism's economic benefits to the more remote areas of the country, generation of additional employment, regional development, and enhanced contribution to national income were dictated by the 9th NESDP. Specifically, the Tourism Master Plan set its key aims and objectives for tourism development to be one of *economic activities* that has,

and will continue to, play a central role in the future economic *growth* and social development in Thailand.

Table 11: Planning and Marketing Considerations			
Planning Considerations	YES	PARTIAL	NO
Identify stakeholders			
Determine community objectives			
Determine tourism development objectives			
Community and tourism development objectives			
Evaluate community context/awareness/attitudes			
Evaluate community readiness			
Determine community empowerment programme			
Evaluate and determine government supporting programme			
Identify community representatives			
Participatory design-Methods and trade-offs			
Community tourism resource audit			
Evaluate economic contribution of tourism and its impacts			
Evaluate social impacts			
Evaluate environmental impacts			
Ongoing stakeholders involvement			
Monitor and review tourism development plan			
Marketing considerations	YES	PARTIAL	NO
Identify each stakeholder's wants and needs			
Determine marketing objectives			
Forecasting number of tourists			
Projecting number of tourists			
Evaluate tourism products			
Price			
Distribution			
Communication/promotional campaign for tourists			
Communication/promotional campaign for community			
Monitoring and evaluation			

Note:

- (Yes) Considered planning and marketing items
- (No) Unconsidered items (or have no evidence)
- (Partial) Considered partially or unsystematically

Discussions with TAT officials indicated that the tourism Master Plan for Thailand was considered to be a technical task, which is completed by the central national consultancy -Thailand Development and Research Institution (TDRI). TAT also seeks expertise and support from different tourism bodies such as WTO, UNDP and private international consulting firms. The Tourism Master Plan covers a wide range of general issues for the overall country. TAT central office also carries out marketing campaigns, which emphasise promotion and focus on providing a generic image about Thailand, rather than featuring specific forms of 'community tourism product' of any specific destination area.

The review of available master plans showed that tourism planning and marketing envisaged by TAT pays superficial attention to the concept of sustainable development. This reflects in tourism development goals and objectives, which were set broadly as, '*the development of international competitive, environmentally sustainable and socially responsible tourism*' (Tourism Master Plan, p.iv). A more specific community tourism development objective was set *partially* in relation to economic contribution in terms of employment creation and income distribution to community. Environmental impacts and social impacts were recognised as being an urgent planning issue, however a clear indication of the problem based on specific details and comprehensive measurable data were absent.

The research revealed that while market data (i.e. tourist arrivals and length of stay) are readily available throughout national and regional offices, there is a lack of

reliable and comprehensive data/information regarding local environmental and social impacts. When asked about data on environmental impacts for three destination areas, a TAT official informed the researcher that:

“We don’t have such a study. We only coordinate some studies with different organisations such as office of Environmental Policy and Planning, National Research Council of Thailand, however most studies are more general...Well, there has been no specific research on tourism conducted for the areas”.

It is widely agreed that tourism is an industry noted for particularly weak statistical data and the questions and planning issues posed by sustainable development analysis add an additional degree of difficulties. Ceron and Buboio (2003) argue that there is a need to build sets of indicators to measure progress towards sustainability, which will enable planners to close the gap between theoretical demands and practical achievement. This is also found to be the case for Thailand.

The evaluation of the current approach revealed that Thai tourism plan ignored local conditions. TAT officials pointed to the centralised nature of the planning process in Thailand may be the main cause of this omission. TAT officials revealed further that specific regional or area tourism plans are conducted or revised only on an ad-hoc basis. Upon requests from TAT regional offices, specific destination plans are normally organised and carried out by TAT, however these are conducted at the national office. The review of available tourism plans showed that tourism master plans for all three selected destination areas are all dated as the most current plans for Phuket, Samui and Hatyai-Songkla were formulated in 1979, 1985 and 1981 respectively. A TAT official explained that,

“we cannot formulate a plan for every single city and area. Considering that Thailand has 75 provinces, and about 7000 communities. Some cities have requested us to formulate a tourism plan for them. However when we suggested that this needs to be completed in cooperation and in most cases we can only provide our expertise...This means they have to fund most of it...they then never get back to us again”.

It has also been indicated that if a plan was carried out, tourism planning is usually in the hands of experts from outside the community. As in the case of the three dated plans for the selected destinations, TAT subcontracted the tasks to both international and national consulting firms. The Phuket tourism plan was completed by Pacific Consultants International, Tokyo and Design 103 Limited. The Samui plan was formulated by Environmental and Resources Management Department and Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research. For Hatyai-Songkla, TAT subcontracted the task to Thai Group Consultants Co.,Ltd., Team Consulting Engineer Co., Ltd. and Electrowalt Engineering Services Ltd. The review of all three plans indicated that land-use approaches (see Getz, 1988) and zone planning to restrict tourism development were the main emphasises. Stipulations regarding size and style of tourism constructions were proposed. In the case of Samui Island, for example, all buildings were recommended to be no higher than the tallest coconut tree (approximately 3 floors). From on site personal observation, land-use and zone planning as well as restrictions proposed in all three plans simply have not been implemented.

It was found from the review of the current Tourism Master plan that community participation in tourism development was addressed in the plan as an essential ingredient for sustainability. The detailed review of the plan, however, showed that specific actions

on how community participation could be achieved at local level were neither elaborated in the plan nor supplemented by any action plan. This is an expected case; without a complementary specific destination based planning, addressing a large number of specific and/or detailed local conditions could be problematic. Consequently, at a local level, community stakeholders, community aspirations, and community tourism development objectives were not carefully or systematically identified. In such cases, the community or local issues were highlighted based on 'commonsense', as opposed to research-based information. TAT officials acknowledge that, in practice, the process of formulating and implementing any planning and marketing campaign omits systematic means of either obtaining direct community participation, or effectively drawing representatives from community. Involved stakeholders tend to come solely from tourism-related business at the national level.

While community participation was mentioned in the plan, the general focus was more on a recognition that community should be involved in providing services for tourists, for instance, *"encourage village visits with guided tours, sales of local handicrafts and visit to see local agricultural practice; encourage trekking projects with the maximum use of local resources; and develop 'commercial tourism village projects' where appropriate, through a combination of local initiative and NGO and tourism industry support"* (Tourism Master Plan, p ix). A weak initial articulation of an objective could mislead the steps in translating that objective into tangible outcomes. The manner in which this objective and its meaning are articulated can be critical to the overall community based planning process.

Discussions with private sector further indicate a 'muddling through' planning process at the industry level. It was found that the role of the industry in tourism planning for all three selected destinations tends to focus their effort mainly on increasing visitors through promotional activities. There are a number of tourism associations at three destination areas (for example, Phuket Hotel Associations, Tourism Industry Association in Hatyai, Tourism Agencies Association of Samui, to list a few). While these tourism bodies were formed to achieve collective trade interests of an industry, formulating any collective plan was found to be complicated and difficult to reach collective tourism development agenda. The situation reflects a typical commercial world's version of the prisoner's dilemma. Treuren and Lane (2003) remark that it cannot be assumed that rival organisations, competing within a marketplace, will always be able to reach sustainable agreements. From this perspective, the authors suggest further that the capacity of an industry to reach a stable, industry level agreement depends on the configuration of organised interests within the industry. A more robust sectoral planning is needed.

From the above review, the conclusion is that a wide gap exists between the prescriptive tourism planning approach and the actual status of how tourism is planned. There are five key interrelated shortcomings in tourism planning and marketing approaches:

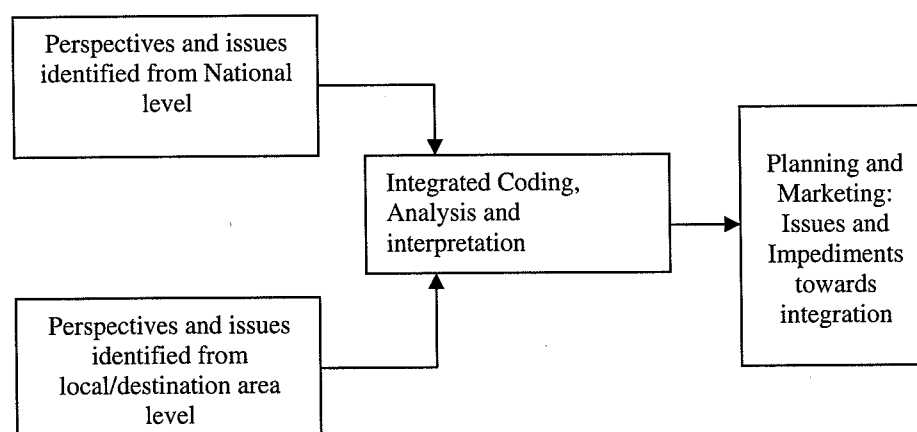
1. Tourism plans are not comprehensive
2. Lack of implementation plan
3. Goals of tourism development broadly and poorly defined
4. Local conditions are ignored
5. Weak role of each industry in shaping tourism planning/marketing

The above shortcomings in the centralised planning approach in Thailand are expected to change over time with a new quest for local administrations to take charge of planning for tourism. Further delineation of the current roles and responsibilities is, however, required to identify issues and impediments confronting national and local tourism organisations. These pragmatic issues will help identify a pathway through which changes could occur. Consequently, gaps between the proposed theoretical foundation and reality could be bridged.

7.3 Planning/Marketing Issues and Challenges: *Perspectives from National to Local levels*

The following sections present different perspectives on planning and marketing issues and challenges at national and local levels. All identified issues from both levels then analysed in aggregate to draw specific attention to impediments toward the integration of planning and marketing, a ‘community-driven’ approach. Figure 12 illustrates the analytical framework and process.

Figure 12: Analytical Framework



The objectives of the contextual analysis of Thai tourism is to (i) elicit the pragmatic relationship between marketing and planning, a community driven approach, and (ii) to identify issues and impediments towards the integration of planning and marketing. Based on these two objectives, recommendations of a pathway to a more community driven marketing approach can then be drawn.

(1) Perspectives from National Level

Eight selected respondents from TAT's officials at the national level identified planning and marketing issues and challenges. Table 12 lists all issues and challenges mentioned during the interviews.

Table 12										
Planning Issues and Challenges: Perspectives from National level										
Issues/Challenges	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	R6	R7	R8	N=8	
Significance of "Sustainable Tourism Development"									8	
Aggressive international marketing campaigns									8	
no controlling mechanism									8	
centralised structure									8	
lack of coordination									8	
lack of communication									8	
conflict of roles among government agencies									8	
complexity of decentralisation process									8	
local governments lack expertise									8	
corruption									8	
mismanagement at local level									8	
law enforcement									8	
economic significance									8	
environmental problems									8	
tourism expansion									8	
Tat is a facilitator									8	
lack support from local government									8	
difficult to achieve participation from community									8	
need training									8	
government support for further growth									8	
High spending tourists should be attracted									8	
lack controlling from government									8	
TAT is not the implementor									7	
grow too fast									7	
insufficient funding									7	
locals are implementers									6	
Stakeholders unavailable for consultation									6	
Quality product									6	
short-term performance measurement									5	
difficult to implement the plan									4	
environment changes too rapidly									4	
lack comprehensive social and environmental data									3	
Emphathy from the National government									3	
participation required by new constitution									2	
Responsible marketing programmes launched by TAT									3	
important to invite key stakeholders from business sectors									1	

Note: R = Respondent
R1 = Marketing Development
R2 = Planning Division
R3 = Master Plan Division
R4 = Project Planning Division
R5 = Northern Resources Development Division
R6 = Conservation Division
R7 = Environmental Organisation Section
R8 = Services Development Division

Generally, it was found that all respondents from TAT at the national level perceived that the sustainable tourism development concept and different responsible forms of tourism are important. This is evident from the interviews that all respondents indicated that tourism planning and development should be built upon a sustainability framework which acknowledges responsible marketing/societal marketing as well as community based tourism planning and marketing. Regardless of their marketing or planning roles, respondents concur that every plan should contain a combination of key elements on socio-cultural, environmental and economic developments and goals. Thus, from a cognition base, it appeared that TAT official's response positively to the need for community participation within the sustainable tourism development approaches.

In contrast with their perceptions, when they were asked to address marketing and planning activities undertaken by TAT, all TAT officials from planning and marketing divisions concur that for almost a century, tourism policy in Thailand with strong Government supports the TAT's policy in expanding the number of foreign tourists visiting the country through aggressive international advertising campaigns. All officials also acknowledge that this policy exists despite the fact that tourism problems in recent years have been the result of excess demand on resources. From the interviews, it should be noted that all respondents except the Director of marketing division were concerned with an insufficient funding for tourism planning, specifically for conservation. As indicated in table 13, the large budget share of the Marketing Department in the TAT manifests the emphasis placed on advertising and promotion. For instance, in 1998, almost 80 percent of the total budget (2,525,152,100 Baht) was allocated to tourism

marketing and left only the remaining 20 percent to tourism planning and development (TAT Annual report, 1998). This ratio has been similar in the years 1994, 1995, 1996 and 2001.

Table 13: A Summary of TAT Budget Allocation¹⁶

Items	1994 (%)	1995 (%)	1996 (%)	1998 (%)	2001 (%)
Years					
1. General Administration Department	3.8	3.7	3.9	6.44	7.49
2. Planning and Developing Department	24.1	16.1	13.2	21.66	19.13
3. Marketing Department	60.6	68.9	71.3	71.90	73.38
4. Hotel and Tourism Training Institute	0.4	0.5	0.5	Nil	Nil
5. Tourist Business and Guide Registration Office	0.7	0.8	0.8	Nil	Nil
6. Tourist Police	10.3	10.0	9.9	Nil	Nil
Total Budget	100	100	100	100	100
(Million Baht)	(2,162.65)	(2,305.02)	(2,545.24)	(2,525.15)	(2,676.13)

Source: TAT's Annual Reports 1994, 1995, 1996, 1998, and 2001.

¹⁶ During the undertaking of this research, there has been an initial discussion about a new system of budget allocations for tourism development projects. The budget will soon be decided on an ad hoc basis. Each project submitted will be considered by a screening committee consisting of representatives of the Budget Bureau, the National Economic and Social Development Board (NESDB), the Finance Ministry and the TAT. The committee will be headed by the NESDB. While the TAT will retain control over the marketing budget, the development budget will be in the hands of the Budget Bureau and dispensed on a project-by-project basis upon submission of applications by the provincial and local administrations. A specific timeframe to implement this new system remains unclear, however.

As stated earlier, while the TAT has a mandate for the formulation of a national tourism master plan, the implementation of any plan must fall into different hands both at national and local levels. It has been indicated that a Master plan normally incorporates economic, social and environmental elements but often fails to articulate who should be responsible for the implementation of different parts. All respondents addressed the centralisation of TAT's structure as an important issue, which makes tourism management, communication and coordination between national and local levels difficult and ineffective. A TAT official from the planning department summed up TAT officials' perspectives towards this issue by stating that;

"It is very difficult when the planner is not the implementer. To achieve whatever is proposed in the tourism master plan, we need diverse implementing bodies to really be involved in the implementation process and have a clear understanding about the direction of the plan. I think we recognise that when converting any plan into action plan and implementation, TAT has greater control over implementing the promotional plan...so the other parts (social and environmental issues) need to be carried out in cooperation with others at more local levels... but this is not to say that we don't do it..our conservation department is working hard on this...the point is that we can be in charge of social and environmental management to a lesser degree... We need to have strong local organisations who can be responsible for planning and managing their own place too...Even marketing, public or private sectors within the areas need to be able to work together to help TAT promote their areas...things like identifying new products and activities..."

In the discussions with all respondents at TAT about the practicalities of involving 'community stakeholders' in planning or marketing of a destination it became clear that they perceived a high level of difficulties. All TAT officials interviewed concur with one official who stated that:

"...it would be difficult or impractical to try to involve everyone in planning or marketing. We have identified only key stakeholders then approached them. It is not always easy to persuade them...to ensure that they will make themselves

available for such a consultation. So most of the time, we ended up just presenting what we have in mind...we always see this step (involving stakeholders) as our major effort but the level of support is not always great...so if you asked about drawing representatives from diverse community groups, that would be very difficult to attain...except as I said we have made a great effort to involve key stakeholders and can basically contribute to the project at hand... ”

Only two TAT officials stated clearly that public participation is now required by law. However a systematic means to get meaningful participation from public at large has not been articulated. A TAT officer from marketing division emphasised that a more immediate need for such a participatory approach would need to come initially from key stakeholders of business sectors. According to him, private support was seen as a prerequisite for the success of the marketing programme, as was experienced from the implementation of “Amazing Thailand” marketing programme.

All respondents suggested that in order to achieve greater participation from various community stakeholders at local levels, TAT needs greater support from local governments and agencies. All TAT officials noted that one of the main planning challenges is at the local management level. Issues such as corruption, law enforcement, and mismanagement at local levels were identified as key planning impediments. It was clear from the interviews that all respondents perceived that the decentralisation of planning responsibilities to local levels is a complex process. All respondents have strong reservations about local expertise in carrying out such a complex planning responsibility. This reflected in their call for more training programmes. One TAT official stated that;

“we have been conducting several training programmes for local governments who gradually need to have full responsibilities for planning and marketing their own destination areas. One of the key issues is that we need to make them understand what tourism is all about...we need to take a step-by-step approach. Well, this has been progressing very slowly. TAOs now have to learn too many new things...tourism planning is only one of other more important agendaes...”

A few interviewees from TAT mentioned the significance of self-regulatory programmes in response to how sustainable tourism development in Thailand could be achieved. One TAT officer indicated that several of which are initiated by the tourism industry itself. These range from an international programme such as ‘local agenda 21’, ‘Green Globe 21’ to a more local programme such as ‘friend of Thailand’ and ‘Green leaf’. These programmes have important aims in common which are to promote tourism development in a more responsible manner. In essence, it can be argued that the programmes approximate the societal marketing concept, which modifies the profit-driven industry to be accountable for the well being of society and the environment. However, the extent of these ‘societal marketing’ activities are arguably limited to an ‘eco-labelling’ with a main objective to increase sales.

Overall, perspectives held by national tourism planners were found to be consistent. All shared similar comments on planning issues and challenges. It seemed clear that TAT at national level perceived that there is a need for *stronger* local governments in terms of their expertise and capability in planning, marketing and management of tourism. TAT officials identified that TAT should be viewed as a facilitator who could provide trainings and assist locals to take control of tourism planning for their local areas.

(2) Perspectives from Local/Destination Areas: Cross-Cases Comparison

To understand the relationship between different levels of planning and marketing, three destination areas (Phuket, Samui and Songkla-Hatyai) were selected to provide a cross-case comparison of their similarities and differences. As shown in table 14, all three selected destination areas share common themes which were woven throughout all the interviews at the three destinations. Differences in perspectives were found when examining those issues based on their roles in tourism planning and marketing. For example, all interviewees from local governments did not mention, or have much concern about, the issue of fast changing business environments, whereas the issue was raised by all interviews with private sector. To identify these differences, all issues were then classified based on respondents' roles: private/associations ($N=21$), local governments ($N=3$), TAT regional officials ($N=3$), and resident members ($N=6$) (See table 14, Overleaf). The 21 respondents from the private sector consist of six hotel managers, three travel agency managers, four representatives from art and craft groups, three presidents of Chamber of Commerce and five leaders of tourism-related associations (see table 2b in Chapter 5). Issues identified by these 21 respondents were counted and represented in Table 14.

Table 14: Perspectives from local level: Cross-Case Comparision

[illegible]

- Private/Business/Tourism Associations and Groups

Widespread attitudes and priority placed upon economic gains were found to be dominant among private sector, and tourism associations and groups. Most respondents from the private sector believed that the number of tourists within the area could still be increased by undertaking *more* promotional campaigns. With a few exceptions to this perception, some tourism business managers stated that the area should aim for quality tourists rather than quantity. A business owner stated;

“We have too many tourists who don’t spend very much and don’t care about anything...we have too much of those already. What we need to do now is to attract more quality tourists who are willing to spend more and care more about our culture and environment...”

Interviews indicated that all respondents ($N=21$) from the private sector are uncertain or do not know about the future and long-term plan for their destination areas. While each individual may envision the future of their destination differently, a common trend found from interviews is that they all wish to sustain tourism *growth* in their areas. They all share the same concern that a fast change and uncontrolled business expansion within their areas will soon deteriorate the attractiveness of their place. Conversely, most respondents indicated that despite their concern about the environment and the wellbeing of society at large, they have to deal with pressure toward expansion and return on their investment. One business owner stated;

“There are so many new business comers... increased competition has led to pressure towards the survival and growth of our business. Each party or business needs to contribute something back, but we have to also survive... when business is struggling, nobody helps us...”

Most local businesses ($N=18$) felt that central government and local government have insufficient controlling mechanisms and ineffective planning for their destination areas. A local business stated that,

“Anyone can do anything. I have been here in the business for 7 years..I have seen so many changes on this island. It is sad...the island (Samui) now is like a city full of shopping arcades...you don't know where you are anymore...Every business has good people and bad people...if we don't have controlling policy soon the place will be completely destroyed...”

When asked all respondents ($N=21$) from the private sector to address the issue of planning for their own business as it operates in tourism industry, all tourism businesses revealed that they only have short-term marketing plan for their business. Regarding a long term (5-10 years) business plan, all indicated the impracticality of having such a plan. A member of one tourism business association explained,

“Competition and environmental change take place so quickly. Sometimes plans are outdated as soon as we finished. So we are more reactive to the situation. Whatever comes, we deal with it..especially we are affected by several national and international factors...hard to predict what is going to happen... for example the September 11th event, such a shock!!....”.

In the discussions with respondents from the private sector about the practicalities of involving the community in planning or marketing of a destination it became clear that alike the TAT officials they also perceived a high degree of difficulties. This was specifically noted from a business point of view. One local business investor in Hatyai summed up their concerns explicitly:

“It is impossible. We are still struggling to get all private sectors to coordinate and have a basic understanding about the benefits of cooperation in our marketing efforts. Most hotels here (Hatyai) are still using price cutting as a way of competing for more customers. Unlike Samui or Phuket, they (business

investors) are more sophisticated. Their client-bases are also farang (foreigners) who are willing to pay more for quality. Our main clients are Malaysians who are here for a short weekend visit. Having cheaper (than Malaysia) good food, and enjoyable night life are their key concerns. They don't really care how responsibly our business is running. They are looking for a cheap and reasonable accommodation. So our business has to compete on that ground"

He then added,

"The community has no idea what tourism is about. Some (residents) hardly see tourists if they don't visit Sai 1, Sai 2, Sai 3 (the main tourist roads). They (Malaysian tourists) hardly get out of the tourist areas. If you ask Hatyai residents, we know where (restaurants, bars) are full of Malaysians. We just accept the way it is. Getting them to join in the meeting and discuss about tourism problems, they will perhaps feel that it is none of their business".

It was found that all respondents from the private sector in each case study areas perceived a low priority for conducting community participatory approach, particularly in regard to their individual marketing campaigns. However, when asked about the necessity of their involvement in TAT's marketing campaign, local business sectors from all three areas are united that they should be invited to comment on the plan. In the case of being involved in planning their destination, local business sector concur that TAT, local governments, and representatives from tourism industry together should take a leading role in envisioning the future of the destination. A member of Phuket local tourism association commented,

"For a more macro projects, for example tourism master plan for Phuket and other projects for the whole society, there is a need for cooperation from different parties. TAT should convene this type of programme with greater support from local governments and representatives from tourism industry. It will be impossible for one single organisation to succeed this type of project...we don't have enough resources...or I should say we just can't do it...but they (TAT) don't conduct this type of project very much..."

An interviewee from one association also indicated the need for a facilitative role by TAT and/or local government. He stated that,

“Sometimes it is too hard for us (local community) to envision the future of our area...maybe the better way is that TAT or local government should provide sufficient information about tourism development and publicise different benefits and costs of different types of tourism development...then we are more informed and can discuss what will be best for our destination...”

While the facilitative role perceived to be significant, the discussions with a senior business representative also indicated dissatisfaction with TAT regional officers’ performance. A business manager commented,

“TAT at the local level has no power at all. There are only 4-5 staff who basically cannot do everything the industry needs them to do. We can ask for help from the local TAT office however the decision is rather centralised. Everything has to go through the central office. It normally will take a long time to get it (plan/activity) moving. Local government also doesn’t take tourism into their planning agenda. Mostly, (it is) the private sector who drives the development and push for more support from government. Even for basic infrastructure like electricity on the Island (Samui) ”

- Public/Local Governments

The perception of all respondents ($N=3$) from local governments towards tourism development in all three areas seems to be very positive. While social and environmental impacts received little consideration, all those interviewed showed clearly that local governments perceived the significance of economic gains from and dependence upon tourism development within their local areas to be high. As a Phuket local government official stated;

“The whole city would just collapse without tourism. We have witnessed this in the past when the whole city just became very ‘dead’ without tourists coming in. If tourism business does not do well, we will see a ‘domino effect’...business would collapse one after the other...”

In contrast with their above perception, all local governments do not perceive tourism planning and marketing to be their full responsibilities. They believed that TAT has a mandate for, and should take a leading role in, planning and marketing. Local governments believe that marketing in particular should be driven by the TAT and the private sector. All local governments from three cases commented that the regional TAT offices should work more closely with the private sector to 'promote' their area. All respondents from the local public sector indicated that they will support a plan envisaged by TAT or central government if TAT or central government provides adequate resources in terms of personnel, knowledge and expertise to implement the plan effectively. One local government member from Hatyai remarked;

"TAT is the key planner. If there is a clear direction in the plan, we will definitely support the plan. We don't have budget and human resources to conduct the plan ourselves so TAT or central government needs to provide sufficient support and resources for us. We do promote tourism to our area only occasionally. During important thai festivities, we always organise a big event to attract tourists..."

At none of the three sites does local government have a systematic effort to undertake tourism planning and marketing effectively. This reflects in two features; (1) the non-existence of departments or staff directly responsible for tourism and (2) the non-existence of tourism plans of any kind available at the local government offices. One local government commented that:

"We have addressed several tourism issues in our long term city plan. I think tourism issues should not be given special treatment but rather they be evaluated in the context of all local development activities..."

While not willing to initiate tourism planning themselves, the research found that local governments generally showed strong support for the idea of community participation in tourism planning and marketing. This is perhaps due to the fact that community participation in decision-making of any issue is required by law. However when asked to address more specifically how participation from the community could, or should, be achieved more systematically in practice, they remain unclear. One local government told that;

“normally community members are invited to listen to our plan..we call it a ‘public hearing’. We are always open to criticism. Everyone can express their opinion freely...”

- TAT Regional Offices

Interviews with the TAT regional officials revealed the need for considerable education about the theoretical underpinnings of community participation. Further reflection will be necessary to identify the most effective way of achieving meaningful community participation in Thailand. While regional TAT is expected to have a greater understanding about community based planning, and thus be able to take on board some community participation techniques and concepts, this was not entirely the case. From the reactions of TAT regional officials and their observations about their organisation it is clear that there is a deep-seated uncertainty about how this approach can be implemented and achieved. This appears to be the legacy of the prevailing power structures, existing political perceptions and values. All regional TAT officials interviewed commented that their organisation has insufficient

resources in terms of human resources, funding, and expertise. Almost all proposed activities have to be approved from TAT headquarters.

- Resident Groups

The interviews with resident groups of each of the three destinations revealed that they are very positive about tourism; in fact they showed signs of encouraging more tourists to the area. In contrast with this, locals also showed that more control mechanisms should be put in place. One local resident even pessimistically commented that;

“Business owners do not realise the importance of environment conservation because they just came to make a profit. When the island is totally destroyed and cannot give benefits to them anymore, they will leave”.

When asked why they want tourism, it was found that community members perceived tourism as bringing more ‘money’ to the area. One resident of Hatyai commented that there is a need for more promotion of the city, in relation to Phuket and Samui, in his opinion, Hatyai has not been promoted (internationally) sufficiently by the TAT. When asked to envision the future of tourism of their areas, all resident members of all three areas perceived that if tourism is ‘developed properly’, their area will become more ‘civilised’, containing several features of urbanised areas. A resident of Hatyai stated:

“We like to see Hatyai like Hong Kong. We don’t have much to offer like Phuket or Samui so to attract more tourists we should perhaps develop our city to become a well developed urbanized area with lots of entertainments”

In terms of their involvement in tourism planning and marketing, all residents interviewed perceived an inadequacy in their ability to comment on any plan. None of the members from this study have ever been invited, or participated in, tourism planning process. They are not aware of the availability of tourism plan for their area.

7.4 Tourism Planning and Marketing: Issues and Impediments toward Integration

Table 15 shows an aggregated analysis of all identified issues and challenges from both national and local levels. All issues were categorised into 7 themes. An interpretation of these issues follows the table.

Table 15: Issues and Challenges- an integrated coding

Themes	Issues	Subissues	
		National	Local
The Organisation and Management System	Government support for further growth	economic significance	economic significance
		Aggressive international marketing campaigns	grow too fast
		short-term performance measurement	uncontrolled expansion
		grow too fast	lack controlling from government
	Unbalanced budget allocation	environmental problems	environmental problems
		insufficient funding for preservation	
	TAT's structure is too centralised and complex	centralised structure	centralised structure
			TAT regional officers have no power
	Lack of interaction and communication channel among all involved planners	lack of coordination	lack collaboration between private and public
		lack of communication	lack communication between governments
			lack collaboration among businesses
	TAT lack authority, thus overemphasis on promotion	TAT is not the implementor	
		locals are implementers	
	Unclear roles, interests and expectations	Tat is a facilitator	insufficient support from TAT
Shortcomings of planning approaches		lack support from local government	Tat is a leading planner
			Lack supports from local government
			business sector should participate in the planning process
	conflict of roles among government agencies	conflict of roles among government agencies	
	Plans are not comprehensive	lack comprehensive social and environmental data	uncertain about the future of tourism
			do not know long term plan
	lack action plan	difficult to implement the plan	business environment changes too rapidly
		environment changes too rapidly	
		need training	
	Ignoring local conditions	too many regional plans to be completed by only TAT	no updated plan for destination areas
	Weak planning and marketing capacity of individual organisation		short-term marketing plan
			unaware of availability of tourism plans
	Weak role of each industry in shaping tourism planning/marketing	no sectoral plan	no plan for each industry
	Profit-driven goals of individual business/organisation		pressure toward return on investment
Legislative and Regulatory Frameworks	New constitution 1997	participation required by new constitution	complexity of decentralisation process
	Decentralisation	complexity of decentralisation process	anyone can build anything anywhere
	Zoning		
Institutional Arrangement Administrative system at local level	Local level mismanagement	mismanagement at local level	mismanagement
	Law enforcement and corruption	corruption	corruption
		law enforcement	law enforcement
	lack of technical know-how, thus no systematic method of participation	local governments lack expertise	unsystematic participation
Community capacity	lack of planning and marketing knowledge	important to invite key stakeholders from business sectors	lack planning expertise/knowledge
			difficult to involve community in planning
			Donot understand nature of tourism business
			having background mainly in construction
Socio-cultural	lack community awareness for participation	difficult to achieve participation from community	low income household, earning job is contested for their time
	lack awareness of the benefit of participation	Lack support from locals	Their ideas never influence the direction of the plan
	economic status		training and education are needed for community
	perceived inadequacy		tourism business would be able to comment on the plan better
Labelling responsible marketing programme			community lack knowledge/expertise
	Social history and how "civilisation" was embraced		physical development equates community development
	Cultural History		hierarchy of social structure
			avoid confrontational approach
		Responsible marketing programmes launched by TAT	individual company claimed of being socially responsible

(1)The Organisation and Management System of National Planner (TAT)

- *Government Support for further growth*

In the past, the government has failed to recognise the significance of tourism planning, although much interest was given to the income generated by the industry. Government policy has steered TAT to always strive for further growth by implementing promotional strategies to increase visitation. In particular, during the Asian financial crisis, the Thai Government announced clearly that the country should utilise the promotion of tourism as a tool to “re-boost” the economy. As a result, within a short timeframe a collaborative promotional campaign- Amazing Thailand- was launched. This so-called collaborative campaign reflects clearly that the government’s imperative to generate badly needed foreign exchange can lead to a plan, which is prone to exclude extensive, and often time-consuming, community consultation.

One TAT official commented that in non-profit organisations such as TAT, where objectives cannot be expressed primarily in monetary terms, performance measurement is much more difficult. In particular, its social and environmental activities have been found hard to quantify or measure in a manner that would enable performance to be assessed and to be held accountable. Thus, the successes of TAT’s campaigns have been evaluated based mainly on the increased number of visitors each year. In comparison with harder-to-measured social and environmental outcomes, it

can be argued that the number of visitors can be more readily measured. A TAT official reinforced this point, stating

“(in the past), our planning approach is very much on number crunching. Government supports tourism expansion. This is also reflected in the policy, which places few restrictions on the private sector. Consultations are indeed undertaken but the timeframe only allow us to invite related business representatives who can be ‘constructive’”

One senior business executive on Phuket Island made a clear comment:

“Every government official, especially at the TAT, loves to say “Ah! We have 11 million people coming here, we have six to seven percent growth. Everyone likes to hear that. They (politicians) want to get results right away, they want to get an image right away, and that’s a problem. I believe a key element being neglected in Thailand’s tourism industry is the importance of providing support to local Thai businesses, whether they be new operators looking to establish a footing in the travel sector, or older companies seeking support for established projects. I have nothing against big foreign operators coming in whether they are hotels or travel agents, but there has to be a plan to promote Thai business.”

As depicted in the literature, government involvement in tourism is necessary. In the case of Thailand, and arguably most developing countries, governments tend to be overly committed to income generated from tourism growth at the expense of conservation and sustainability. The review of the Thai’s government policy has indicated that tourism is viewed as the most effective means for economic development, and for poverty reduction. A business manager commented on such a policy;

“Older destinations like Hua Hin and Phuket were being neglected at the expense of new destinations the government was keen to promote. Tourism in Thailand is moving very fast and the government is very slow to implement programmes that safeguard businesses – things like infrastructure and

environmental protection. A good example is Hua Hin which has many hotels and has become a hot destination, but it has no main water treatment facilities. I'm not just talking about the hotels, I'm talking about the fishing villages, the factories – these kind of problems exist at tourist destinations all over Thailand. Now the government is putting a lot of money into a new destination like Koh Chang and that concerns me because we are not even sure what the government's master plan for the island is. It's spending half a billion baht on infrastructure for Koh Chang but what plan do they have set down for the island's future? At the same time older destinations are desperately in need of funds for development and are getting none."

Arguably, the key for tourism development to be planned and marketed in a more sustainable manner must therefore come from a willingness on the part of government to co-fund and support activities to ensure that sufficient authority and in-kind resources are provided to enhance participatory and integrated planning and marketing. A TAT official revealed,

"TAT has been allocated a budget of 0.7% of the annual income from the tourism industry, an amount that is not enough to undertake pro-active and effective tourism marketing and planning. An average 500 million baht budget is allocated annually for improving and developing tourist locations. This amount is inadequate. To complete all needs of all related agencies, we need the budget of 3,000-5,000 million baht".

The official then added,

"due to inadequate budget, tourist attractions are not well maintained and conserved, it then leads to degeneration".

This comment is supported by the WTO, which suggested that the normal minimum level of 'reinvestment' for a destination on tourism development should be around 3 per cent of the total tourism revenue (WTO, 2001). A business owner summed up,

(Mentioning a few people by name) “it is sad because there are a lot of “good people” in the private sector concerned about the state of Thailand’s tourism industry. But after many years of failing to draw the government’s attention to the pitfalls “a lot of good people” were “just really tired” and had adopted a “Mai ben rai” (never mind) attitude”.

- *TAT’s structure is too centralised and complex*

As stated, TAT takes a role in both tourism planning and marketing in Thailand. The central office in Bangkok carries out a vast variety of planning and marketing tasks. It is therefore not surprising to find that the structure of TAT is very complex, having a large number of different departments and divisions assuming different elements of planning and marketing responsibilities. All TAT officials agreed with this. As one TAT official explained when asked about the responsibility of the conservation department,

“our department was part of the planning division before. Then our responsibilities have become too complex so we have been promoted to another separate department. ”

- *Lack of interaction and communication channel*

Due to the complexity of TAT’s tasks and its centralised structure, several problems are encountered. Most respondents commented that lack of efficient coordination between all concerned agencies and lack of sufficient integration between interrelated resources, environments and plans were identified as the main impediments. Interviews revealed that different levels of institutional arrangements have not been created to interact, manage, plan or even implement tourism plans. TAT is expected to complete and disseminate all tourism plans and marketing plans. One

main problem is therefore the implementation of TAT's envisaged plans. As stated by a TAT official,

"We can only formulate the plan and advise on policy. If local government and other private organisations are not implementing it, the plan will remain just a plan. We provide advice and help along the way but bottom line is we cannot enforce it."

All interviewees from local destinations felt that since the TAT central office completes most plans, they are unaware of the availability of those plans. Interviews revealed that none of the respondents, excluding TAT officials, have read the tourism master plan of Thailand. This was also found to be the case at the local level where the (dated) plans for three local destination areas were not made available at the TAT regional offices. TAT officials agreed and regretted that all plans have not been disseminated to all involved parties at the local level.

- *Lack of authority, thus overemphasis on promotion*

Even though TAT has been assigned a wide range of responsibilities, it has emphasised its marketing over which it has considerable control. Conversely planning and implementation of any proposed plan and development role has been de-emphasised due to lack of authorities, resources, and unclear pathways to implementation. An attempt to correct this limitation was reflected in the recommendation to upgrade the TAT to a ministry, which has been mooted since the first national tourism Master Plan (1976) and has since remained a matter of debate. It

is therefore not surprising that the TAT has concentrated its effort primarily towards *promoting* Thailand as a destination. As shown in table 12 (p.171), a high proportion of budgets has been allocated to marketing expenditures to create market awareness and increase tourist arrivals. Marketing activities, which emphasised promotional campaigns, are considered to be the core activities undertaken by TAT.

TAT's mandate for planning and managing tourism date back to 1976 when the first five-year national tourism plan was undertaken and it was followed by a number of plans for various regions and provinces, however most of the recommendations remained unimplemented. TAT officials comment that three factors were considered as the major constraints on the effectiveness of these plans. Firstly, while all plans are visionary they inevitably lack budgetary support. Secondly, there was no commitment (buy-in) from other agencies, which are directly responsible for public investments, project implementation and as monitoring. Thirdly, for many implementing organisations, tourism is not their primary mandate and investment in tourism means funds must be contested and drawn from projects for which those agencies are directly responsible. At the local level, in particular, there is a lack of support and commitment from the local government. In contrast, in many cases, even when the local authorities and communities are interested in developing and restoring local tourism sites, they have limited financial and human resources as well as planning expertise.

- *Conflict of Roles and Interests among Government Agencies*

Tourism resources are typically managed by various government agencies. Thailand is no exception. The Royal Forestry Department, Department of Fine Arts and Local Governments are a few government agencies with significant related responsibilities in tourism planning. This study has found that a channel has not been created in order for each agency to interact and communicate about tourism matters effectively. Their roles, to certain extent, are in conflict with TAT. As Samabuddhi (2002) reported,

“The Forestry Department has expressed disappointment at the Tourism Authority of Thailand's plans to promote tourism in protected forest areas without consultation. The forestry chief said yesterday TAT had initiated several eco-tourism projects in protected areas without first seeking the advice of his department. As a result, inappropriate locations had been chosen for some of the projects. The forestry chief cited as an example a 22-million-baht tourism promotion project, funded by a loan from Japan's Overseas Economic Co-operation Fund, at Uthai Thani's Huay Kha Khaeng wildlife sanctuary. Under the project, seven lodges, a canteen and a multi-purpose hall would be built to accommodate visitors to Khao Nang Ram Research Centre, the sanctuary's most ecologically sensitive wildlife habitat. A tourist information centre, a wastewater-treatment facility and a 5KW electricity plant would also be built at the sanctuary's main office. TAT needed to change several aspects of its plans to make the project more environmentally friendly, Mr Plodprasop said. Kamron Chalermroj, director of TAT's investment administration division, countered his agency had not intervened in the Forestry Department's plans to promote tourism at national parks and wildlife sanctuaries”.

Interviews with TAT revealed that although the Royal Forest Department's National Park division is responsible for the management of marine and national parks, the department has no direct involvement in tourism planning. A clear tourism policy including a policy of private sector operations within protected areas does not exist.

(2) Institutional Arrangement and Administrative Systems at the Local level

- *Local level management*

Most respondents concur that many problems have arisen as a result of the local political restructuring. The discussions identified major problems, which need to be overcome before the effectiveness of community participation in tourism planning and marketing can be realised. These are:

- Central agencies and civil servants do not accept the TAOs as equal partners in development. While Article 69 of the Tambon Administration Act sets out to establish a coordination mechanism between central government agencies and local governments and authorities by requiring all state planning agencies, who operate development activities at the tambon level to inform the TAOs in advance, and adjust their work plans and programmes to meet local needs and requirements. In practice, very few agencies have complied with the Act.
- TAOs often carry out development projects on their own, and almost all projects involve infrastructure, such as village roads, small bridges, and village water supply systems that require minimum technology. Without coordination, information and technical assistance, many tourism projects such as tourism product evaluation and development, tourism education programmes, environmental protection, tourism employment promotion projects are rarely included in the TAO's annual budgets. This is because

most officials and TAO members do not have sufficient knowledge and information on how to design such projects. Central government agencies provide only simple advice as a local government official explained,

“TAOs are able to allocate about 20,000 -30,000 baht to help support cultural activities organised by the District Offices, or to buy more medicine for the local hospitals or allocate budgets to buy satellite disks. TAO budget plans are so similar; even through each community has different problems and needs”.

- The Tambon Act and the Ministry of Interior (MOI)'s regulations stated that people could observe TAO meetings. Minutes of the meetings must be available publicly. These regulations aim to create transparency and encourage tambon residents to participate in, and monitor TAO's decisions and performance. However, very few TAOs, if any, follow this guideline. The situation is in fact seen to be worsening as one community leader stated;

“local residents are not aware that they have the right and opportunity to participate in the meeting. In general, they do not fully understand their rights and duties”.

- Due to the lack of transparency and the participation of the people, TAOs can easily be corrupted. A local business member revealed that,

“many contracts for TAO projects are distributed among subcontractors who are friends, relatives or TAO member themselves. Conflict and corruption are found in many areas, and sometimes conflicts between different groups of TAO members who want to protect their own business interests turn violent”.

One business member in fact referred to the new legislation on decentralisation, perhaps rather cynically, as producing '*decentralised corruption*'.

- Rigid and complex administrative rules and regulations issued by the MOI are difficult for local officials to understand and follow as they do not have much experience of the administrative system.

Interviews also indicated that although decentralisation of decision making and control, both from central to local government and within the local government, may involve a risk of the above local mismanagement and corruption, the benefits of decentralisation in terms of flexible and expeditious programme execution, more dilution of responsibility, a reduction of bureaucratic red tape, and other administrative savings, are expected to exceed the costs in the long run. To achieve these benefits, most respondents concur that it is imperative to draw a step-by-step programme and first consider the readiness of local authorities. One TAT official stated,

"In a very short period of time TAOs have been given a lot of responsibilities. Tourism is only one of them. I think it is too much and too soon for them. Government did not really have any preparatory (training) programmes. We (TAT) have seen many of their tourism projects to be identical. Most TAOs propose a homestay project. They just have limited experience in tourism. The biggest stumbling block has been misunderstanding of the tourism planning concept by key government agencies and tambon authorities themselves. Resistance among various state agencies in ceding budget allocations for the programme was another obstacle to implementation".

Another TAT official commented,

“We (government and related agencies) never conducted any study about how ready or knowledgeable these organisations (TAOs) are. Consider there are about 7000 TAOs, surely they must be in different stages and conditions. The most important thing I would suggest is to classify them first. Group them perhaps based on their knowledge and experience. Well, do you know that most TAOs members are constructors, they have limited experience in planning and developing communities...maybe that’s why everyone (TAO member) just wants to build more roads...”

Most TAT officials concur that a significant gap remains between national level policies and local level realisation of sustainable tourism development and improved quality of the community’s life. One official elaborated that national planners are working on effective means to integrate more fully environmental and social issues into economic dimensions, while truly meaningful multi-stakeholder participation is still emerging. Institutionally, better coordination and further integration between central governmental bodies, local authorities and the private sector would strengthen sustainable tourism development in Thailand.

- *Law enforcement and Corruption*

Improved legislation and regulations may be one mechanism to assist in increasing consideration of environmental values in the tourism planning process, but legislation and regulations are useless unless they are implemented and enforced (Hall 1999: 145). A TAT official commented, in the case of Phuket, for instance, zoning

was tried in 1976 when the TAT conducted a tourism development study. The official stated,

“The idea was shelved because it could have affected land use by the rich and powerful. Plans for night entertainment zones have been rejected on the same grounds. Laws intended to protect the environment carry no weight on the island. The destruction of coral is just one example of the flouting of the law, with the excuse that tourism activities bring in over 200 million baht a year. A five-star hotel encroaching on a beach is another example of the abuse. It is allowed to continue operating despite a Counter Corruption Commission ruling calling for the rescinding of its operating licence”.

Another TAT official provided another case in point concerning carrying capacity estimations for several fragile tourism areas in Koh Samui. However, there is no formal channel and no responsible public sector agency to enforce the recommended carrying capacity.

- *Lack of technical know-how, thus no systematic method of participation*

The discussions identified that some participatory tools or approaches were used, but in an ad hoc, unstructured way, and with little attempt at systematic analysis of the results. A TAT official shared the experience,

“Everyone was invited to the meeting. There were too many people in the room. In one occasion, there were over 100 people who had no idea about why they were there. I think there should be a classification of issues then we can identify who we should invite to the meeting”

All respondents from resident groups agree that local people must be allowed to comment on the plan. However, in practice, a representative of Phuket's art and craft group summarised,

"People's representatives have never been invited to a meeting on the international city campaign. The only private sector people joining such meetings are businessmen. Villagers have never been told how the promotion plan will affect their lives. Phuket attracts three million tourists already each year, vastly overwhelming the 250,000 residents, so the island could already be considered an international city, albeit a poorly organised one. Without direction, investors have pushed development too fast for any environment protection measures or efforts at sustainable development to keep pace".

It was also found that all respondents were uninformed about the variety of participatory approaches, which were possible, and the grounds on which choices should be made. As stated, TAT has implemented some participatory techniques but the support and success from locals is rare. The concept of community consultation needs to be explained in a totally jargon-free way. TAT officials also felt that the complexities and timeframes of their planning and marketing plan did not allow greater use of participatory planning and marketing of a wide range of community stakeholders.

- *Lack of support from local government*

TAT as a national tourism organisation has little direct involvement in land-use management decisions, whereas local governments play a direct role through regulations such as zoning guidelines and the issuance of development permits. This study identified a number of issues that affect the optimisation of local governments'

performance for tourism development. Firstly, most respondents felt that elected members of municipalities and TAOs do not understand tourism, tourism planning and marketing. Secondly, these organisations are unclear about their roles in tourism development. Consequently, they place unrealistic expectations on TAT's regional staff as to what TAT can achieve for the city or destination areas.

Respondents from the private sector indicated dissatisfaction with local government's level of support and understanding of tourism business. The level of involvement or priority placed on tourism effectively remains a discretionary element of local government responsibility and activity. One local chamber of commerce member indicated that education is needed to address the problem.

"Education is vital (if we are to) overcome the ignorance and make (local government) staff understand the complexities of the job. They must learn that success in tourism does not happen on its own."

All interviewed residents and private sector showed their disappointment with the way local government is listening, and responding, to community priorities. Most respondents at the local destination felt that there are weak linkages between community involvement and community change. To achieve greater community involvement local governments need to ensure that community's wishes will be implemented or at the least their wishes and ideas will influence the direction of plans.

It was found that one principle that has not yet been adopted in any local planning process is to view tourism issues as being inextricably linked to broader

questions concerning the thrust of overall local community development. Regional TAT officials explained consistently that the quality of tourism planning and coordination of tourism development is undermined by the lack of a clear assignment of statutory responsibility for the monitoring and supervision of the implementation of tourism development plans from local governments. TAT regional officers further stated that TAT has little influence over the allocation of annual budget resources available for the financing of local tourism-related projects. TAT regional officers added that the key impediment is that the current local government style does not provide a fundamental mechanism for community involvement. In the struggle to find effective means of decentralisation and democratisation at the local level, the move towards community participation in tourism marketing and planning is unfortunately not seen as a priority.

To achieve greater community participation in tourism development, TAT has identified that the Tambon Administrative Organisations (TAOs), the elected representatives of the community, are the most important channel. Churugsa (2004) found that despite their legislative authority mandate, the TAOS members have limited capacity in tourism development and planning. Churugsa (Ibid) identified inadequate understanding and knowledge about issues, such as: its roles and responsibilities; tourism development and planning; coordination between relevant sectors at local, regional and national levels; establishment of legislation; management of the environment; and the collection of taxes and the process required for budget

requests. Therefore empowering programmes directed specifically at TAOs' members to enhance tourism planning knowledge should be a priority.

(3) Legislative and Regulatory Frameworks

- *New Constitution 1997 and Decentralisation*

As stated earlier, recent local political reform and the introduction of the new Constitution provides support for the decentralisation process. The Constitution was set out to promote the development of autonomous, self-managed and self-regulating communities. While the new legislation could provide a framework for the decentralisation of administrative and decision-making power, the process of getting this new system to function properly such that local people will truly participate in decision-making, are not without resistance and confusion. It is fair to say that a long history of the centralised and rigid bureaucracy of the Thai government will not be dissolved easily. One local politician, who is not optimistic, commented:

"The reform plan enlarged the state sector instead of downsizing it. I don't see what the country and the people will get from this reform. The reform policy was cosmetic as the government was not reducing state power or decentralising it to local administration bodies as promised. The bureaucratic reform was being carried out at the demand of the Civil Service Commission Office, not the public. That agency deals mainly with creating positions for civil servants, not with modernising the bureaucracy".

One community member summed up simply that,

"passing law is easy but trying to make it work is another story".

The mechanisms necessary to develop true decentralisation will depend largely on how local institutions are arranged and prepared. It could be argued that it is here where the real implementation of community participation and sustainability guidelines will potentially be an essential element of the country or simply remain idealism.

(4) Community Capacity

As depicted in the literature reviewed, community involvement is the engine that drives community development. Most community members interviewed in this study remarked that in many cases, community members want to be involved but are unclear about the appropriate method of involvement or their ability to contribute in any meaningful way. When community members were asked about a variety of methods for improving involvement, they were united in their perceptions that community involvement in tourism planning and marketing could be improved through activities such as increased community awareness of participation opportunities. Clearly, the organisation of community participation, including preparing and providing opportunities for meaningful involvement, is critical to sustainable community development. One community leader aptly described the difficulties associated with community involvement,

“Unfortunately, although members of low-income communities may be supportive of tourism development, they have a variety of obligations and activities that compete for their spare time”.

He then suggested, *“only through monetary rewards can participation be obtained from community. Say if government is prepared to pay 200-300 baht per person, that will be a day earning of some families...maybe then they (community members) are more willing to come to the meeting”*

It was found that most respondents perceived that only tourism business sectors could contribute to tourism plan in a meaningful way. A local chamber of commerce member stated,

“If you invite a resident outside of the tourism cycle, who has never been involved in tourism business or matter, how can they comment on anything?. So as a result we have to spend so much time teaching them about tourism”

Major business investors are perceived to play a key role in this regard. Naturally, tourism business providers prefer the continuation of expansionary trends, while other community members perhaps search for a better quality and a more sustainable form of tourism.

(5) Cultural Aspects

From the researcher's personal observation, several cultural aspects may affect the effectiveness of community participation in the planning process. This is particularly concerned with the hierarchical forms of communication and relationships between civil servants (governmental agencies) and community members.

The hierarchy of social status plays out in the conduct of meetings. From personal observation during the meeting of a tourism association, unidirectional flow of information and lack of participation are common. This feature is also common when community members attend any meetings. There is a common sense that they are to be 'informed', not to exchange information or views. The chair of the meeting rarely invites feedback from the floor. Generally, it is also a tradition that most Thais tend to avoid a confrontational approach. This also means that information delivered from the superior is not to be challenged.

The discussion with all respondents also revealed that the term 'development' (*or phattana*) is used so much by the Thai that it is easy to become inured to its particular interpretations and the ideological baggage that comes with it. As a result, when referring to tourism 'development' (*Phattana Kan Tong Tio*), it denotes the development of physical infrastructure. It is closely associated with the construction of roads, irrigation channels, the arrival of electricity, piped water and alike. Particularly in the case of the rural development, it is associated with commercialisation. Tourism 'development' is therefore seen positively when it transforms communities from backward to modern, for instance Samui is now '*phattana*' because the island resembles towns and cities.

7.5 Chapter Summary

The case studies raise a number of issues that merit close attention. Thailand is in a state of rapid transition. The pace of social, economic and political change in the last two decades has been so fast and widespread which have affected the way tourism planning and marketing are, and will, be conducted. The review indicated that the government of Thailand through the Tourism Authority of Thailand has made efforts to adopt community driven tourism development concept. However, in practice, the case studies found several impediments, which need to be overcome before the effectiveness of such an approach can be realised. Barriers to the development of community driven tourism planning and marketing have been identified to stem from the political structure and a lack of skills and resources. Issues and challenges identified from the interviews include: unclear roles among different tourism planners and implementers, limitations in qualified human resources, dominance of private sector interests, lack of information, lack of formal processes for public participation, and financial constraints. In addition, the current decentralisation process being undertaken in Thailand is likely to slow the adoption of community driven planning and marketing, while local authorities become accustomed to a wider range of responsibilities and greater control over their finance regimes. These challenges will be discussed further in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

There are two related parts of this thesis: (1) a philosophy of the potential integration of tourism planning and marketing towards a community driven approach and (2) a pragmatic and contextual manifestation of the philosophy through an examination of three selected destination areas in Thailand. From the review of the tourism planning and marketing literatures (Chapter 2, 3 and 4), it has been concluded that significant linkages regarding community-driven planning and marketing and possible integration depend largely on identifying '*who are the customers of tourism development?*' The common theme identified from a community-based planning context suggests, and is advocated in this thesis, that the host community should be identified as a primary consumer of tourism development (see discussion in chapter 4). However, the practicality of such a participatory approach, presented in the previous chapter, indicated that translating the proposition discussed in this thesis would be a key challenge for tourism planners and marketers. This chapter now discusses the findings, drawing particular attention to lessons learned from the selected case studies. Following this discussion, the proposed model will be evaluated. In light of the case study analysis, several elements are modified, added and eliminated. Finally, specific implications for tourism development in Thailand are discussed.

8.2 Tourism Planning and Marketing: Lessons Learned

The case study confirmed that practicing integrated and community based tourism planning and marketing is a complex task, which requires an extensive understanding about diverse and interrelated issues. It demonstrated that tourism planning in Thailand was considered to be planning *for* tourism. According to Getz (1987), this traditional view focuses on planning for tourist developments. It lays great emphasis on providing destination attractions and facilities in order to attract tourists and increase economic development. This type of tourism planning has been equated with economic advantage though increased income, greater employment opportunities and overseas earnings. Getz (1987) called this form of planning ‘boosterism’ and he stated that the plan will always be advanced by politicians and tourism developers either to promote growth and/or profit through the exploitation of resources. This was also found to be the case in Thailand.

As stated earlier, the Thai government has steered TAT to always strive for further growth by implementing promotional strategies to increase visitation. This growth orientation is a dominant planning approach and tends to override the government’s intention to implement ‘community based planning and marketing’ in Thailand. It appears that despite government and the government’s tourism mandated body (TAT) pronounced that tourism should be developed in a sustainable manner with a greater emphasis on community participation; the actual implementation of

such an ideal is currently non-existent. The case suggested that from the practical sense, the question then is not 'can marketing and planning be integrated?'; but the concern should be 'how to shift the overall focus and effort of tourism development to be more responsive to community'. The case indicated further that Thailand, and arguably most developing countries, is confronting a dilemma when the community themselves would in fact envisage their local areas 'to grow', 'to develop', 'to commercialise', and/or 'to resemble westerns civilisations'. In the essence, tourism growth and development have been expected to bring a 'better life' in terms of wealth. In this context, overcoming poverty will always be their priority over social and environmental concerns. Thus, management challenges towards integrated participatory planning and marketing in any developing countries are immense and need greater local knowledge and effort from all people interested in tourism. This research has made that attempt, drawing some lessons from the selected case-Thailand.

In the case of developing countries, one significant lesson can be learned from Thailand is that *successful* tourism growth, which is pushed purely by market-led strategies and competition, may not always mean 'profitability' if the unwanted social and environmental consequences exceed the benefits. Effective controlling mechanisms from the government are essential ensuring (enforcing) that the market operates within a regulatory framework. This is however not to say that planning and marketing are necessarily in conflict or incompatible. As Hall (1999:59) suggested,

“indeed, appropriate public planning may provide a degree of certainty regarding government policy and the regulatory environment that can be welcomed in the marketplace”

This research indicated that there is no one ‘perfect’ mechanism for incorporating community aspirations either into marketing or planning for a destination. The most suitable mechanism for any given destination must therefore be evaluated and selected according to the nature of the issue at stake and more importantly the existing local situations. Steps are then designed accordingly. In the case of Thailand, it is illustrated clearly that the possibility of achieving effective community participation is in line with the political, economic and socio-cultural traditions. The current political and economic situation, particularly at local level, influences significantly how and why members of the communities are included in, or excluded from, tourism planning and marketing.

From a Thai cultural perspective, for instance, the principle of 'hierarchical order' is well reflected in the predominance of the vertical social relationship that has long been practiced and has become an important characteristic of Thai society. The vertical social relationship is characterised by a formalised super ordinate-subordinate relationship. These patterns are based on *the status inequalities* that exists in almost all social relationships: within the family, usually in terms of the relative ages of people; elsewhere in terms of age, wealth, power, knowledge, and religious or government role (Bhasson, 1995). To a certain extent, this tradition may have impeded the progress of a genuine participatory planning approach, as it has been observed from

this study, that this hierarchical relationship prevails when ‘participatory’ meeting was held, particularly between government officials and community members. In Thailand, the young are subordinate to the old, women are subordinate to men, laymen are subordinate to monks, and the villagers are subordinate to the headman (Ibid). An acceptable behaviour is that subordinates are not to challenge the superordinates. The family is viewed as the basic training ground for their members to learn about this superior- inferior or respect patterns, and to behave and to speak appropriately with parents, elders, relatives, teachers, monks, government officials, and others. Within the family itself, one can see a clear example of such practices. Parents are solicitors in earning for children. Older children look after younger siblings while younger ones perform the tasks requested by the older siblings (Ibid). Such an embedded culture would not be easy to change.

From a political sense, as stated, the struggle of democratisation and decentralisation, community participation in tourism marketing or planning is not the first priority for either the politicians or the community themselves. Increasing decentralisation of power is a feature of most developing countries. Thailand is no exception. It was found that maintaining the right balance between local autonomy and central steering capacities is a major challenge for managing across levels of government. To support community based tourism development, specific attention should be paid to translating international, national and sub-national strategic policy directions into action plans and measures that can be implemented at local levels. As

can be seen from the case, one of the main difficulties in implementing a community approach to tourism planning and marketing is the readiness (i.e. perceptions, tourism planning and marketing knowledge, and resources) of different involved parties. These include the government bodies themselves, both at national and local levels.

The case also indicated that to assume that community empowerment will emerge from within the communities is misleading. Tourism planners therefore need to first create a stronger local body (i.e. respectable local government officer or local resident). It is argued that government intervention in this matter is a vital steppingstone for improving community participation because governments typically dominate tourism planning affairs and possess the mandate and potential power to control development within the local planning system (WTO, 1979, Pearce, 1992).

Then the question for government is how to raise awareness, how to create new networks, to strengthen existing networks, and community institutions, how to motivate and train community members to lead and participate effectively? These issues are challenging, particularly in Thailand when participatory approaches have been considered only recently in a local governmental organisation. An important step in the process is, therefore, to obtain the support of its civil service to bring changes in organisational culture in order to institutionalise the new practice more effectively and efficiently. "New" approaches and processes invariably meet with resistance, especially when they appear to challenge the traditional roles of policy advisors,

technical advisors, professionals and other administrators. Consequently, there is a need to build the confidence of the civil service that the processes are designed to strengthen their ability to deliver services to their clients. Part of this confidence-building step is the training of civil servants in the use of the new approaches and methods. Such training can act as a means of demonstrating how effective the participatory approaches can be and in clearly demonstrating that the professional skills of civil servants are not being undermined but are utilised in a different way than was done previously.

Maintaining commitment both within and outside government is another challenge when short-term economic considerations such as GDP growth and income generated from tourism growth are the absolute priority. As in the case of Thailand, short-term economic gain policies are often preferred to long-term sustainable development policies. Thus, only superficial attention to the issue from the government would not produce any positive and effective outcomes. Clear commitment and leadership within government to community based development goals, and communication of this commitment, are essential to support the development of a concrete strategy and subsequent action. This commitment should start from the top, but developing leadership and capacity throughout public sector organisations, essentially at the local level, is also crucial. This is particularly challenging given the potential for conflict among various interests both in the public and private sectors.

It is clear that in order to develop a robust and operational theoretical perspective for tourism planning and marketing, practitioners and researchers must explicitly acknowledge the interdependency between tourism and local developments. As demonstrated in this case that the possibility of involving the community in tourism planning and marketing is dependent upon (1) government policy and genuine support for community participation, (2) the stage and success of political reforms towards decentralisation at local levels, and (3) a clear understanding about socio-cultural aspects which may have an effect on the pursuit of participatory approach. While tourism is seen as a significant contributor towards economic growth, the significance of implementing community involvement has not yet been included genuinely in national and local governments' agenda.

The complexity of the long-term effects of most issues related to community driven planning and marketing approach imply that, for most policy decisions to be made, conclusive scientific evidence is not always available. A limited capacity on the part of planners and marketers from both public and private sectors to deal with the range of perspectives on the issue, as well as an inability to absorb complexity and to manage change, will be at odds with the need for a mutual understanding among the different disciplines, audiences or constituencies involved. In the case of Thailand, local governments and administrators as well as TAT regional offices were found to have inadequate tourism planning and marketing expertise and knowledge (Churungsa, 2003). Managing knowledge for community based tourism development is therefore extremely vital.

Improved scientific input to policy development for community based planning and marketing is necessary and requires investment in specific research fields. In addition to improving links between the scientific community and policy makers, changes in government practices will be required to assess possible options before taking decisions. For example, it was found that although there are a large number of newly established Tambons Administrators at the community level, there has been no rigorous research to compile their complete profiles to inform policy makers before designing and implementing training programmes. Therefore it is important to devote sufficient attention to ensuring that the flows of information between the scientific community and decision-makers are efficient and effective. Better inputs from scientific research in policy decisions will require that governments stimulate the production of scientific data in a number of key areas, for example, community based planning and marketing toolkits which should be practical and user friendly.

The findings of this study draw particular attentions to institutional challenges that involve not only government but all stakeholders, including the business community and local civil society organisations. The case analysis indicated that the adoption and effectiveness of community driven planning and marketing depend on stipulating a clear responsibility and coordination of the actors involved in the planning and marketing process. Constructing a clear relationship will help identify the linkages between planning and marketing programmes and how they could be integrated practically. The next section devotes to this issue.

8.3 Institutional Arrangement: Whose role is it?

If ‘community driven planning and marketing’ approach is so important, why have our commitments often failed to be implemented effectively? This research suggested that part of the answer lies in the ineffective institutional framework and inadequacy of governance tools. Good governance and sound public management are preconditions for the implementation of community based tourism development. These preconditions include efforts to ensure an ethical and more transparent government process, as well as decision-making practices sufficiently open to citizens. Although the precise impact of these basic “good governance preconditions” on community driven approaches has not been examined, the negative impact of defective governance on tourism development was found to be imperative. In addition to these basic preconditions, key management tools, such as policy coordination and coherence, performance measurement, mechanisms for community engagement, specific policy and implementation processes, and continuous strategic assessment, are also fundamental.

To operationalise the proposed community driven planning and marketing model, an important issue identified from this study is how to advance the ‘integration agenda’, which includes effective coordination between sectors and across the various levels of governments. Achieving greater policy coherence demands sustained efforts to improve the integration of sectoral policies, to ensure policy integration across levels of government, and to ensure consistency in the choices made by the various

stakeholders. For example, while tourism businesses and local governments expected TAT to play a leading role in tourism planning and marketing, TAT officials believe conversely that their organisation should be a facilitator.

An articulation of different functions and key accountabilities allow the community tourism development goals to be met. It is recommended that a 'relationship map'¹⁷, which looks at the flows among major groups, rather than specific activities, should be developed. That is, it creates a broad picture of the tourism organisation of the given area. The map could be constructed by identifying all interest groups, public and private agencies and institutions, who may have an interest in the planning or policy formulation and marketing process. The relationship map can be used to help understand how the work is currently getting done so that "disconnects" can be discovered and fixed. *Disconnects* refer to missing, confusing, unneeded, or misdirected inputs or outputs.

A separate relationship analysis between dual important groups of participants may also be helpful to understand the potential roles that they may have at the planning and implementation stages. The map is prepared to show the type of relationship between groups by using different types of arrows and symbols. The types of relationship could be of cooperation, dependency, symbiotic, partnership, conflict, and/or competition. This type of relationship mapping is helpful

¹⁷ The term is adopted from the field of generic counseling research advanced by Kenen and Peters, 2001.

to understand the group dynamics between different actors involved in the operation and management of complex social systems or delivery of public services. Clear understanding of group dynamics could be crucial for the success of a participation process as well as to understand the complexity that might be involved in decision-making in a particular situation. A relationship map can also help to identify existing nature of relationships between groups that need to be changed through some interventions. For example, an existing conflict relationship between TAT regional office and local government may need to be changed to a mutually supportive or symbiotic relationship through integration of these systems.

Table 16 outlines key expected roles of different planners and marketers in relation to two related functions (destination management planning and destination marketing¹⁸). Although all functions may be more involved and complex, the main aim is to demonstrate that articulating who is accountable for different functions is a prerequisite for successful implementation of community based planning and marketing. In addition, the lead agency and supportive agencies must be identified providing a basis upon which a more detailed relationship map (Figure 13) could be built.

¹⁸ Destination management refers to management of the tourism destination elements related to the tourism environment and setting e.g. land management, tourism environment, tourism planning, roading planning. Destination Marketing includes all the planned activities by tourism businesses and organisations that are designed to increase intent to travel to a destination by increasing awareness of the destination's attributes and the benefits of a visit. It includes strategic activities such as brand building and product development as well as sales-related activities such as trade relation management and providing information about products and prices (NZ tourism Strategy 2010, Retrieved July 12, 2004 from www.tourism.govt.nz/strategy/index.html).

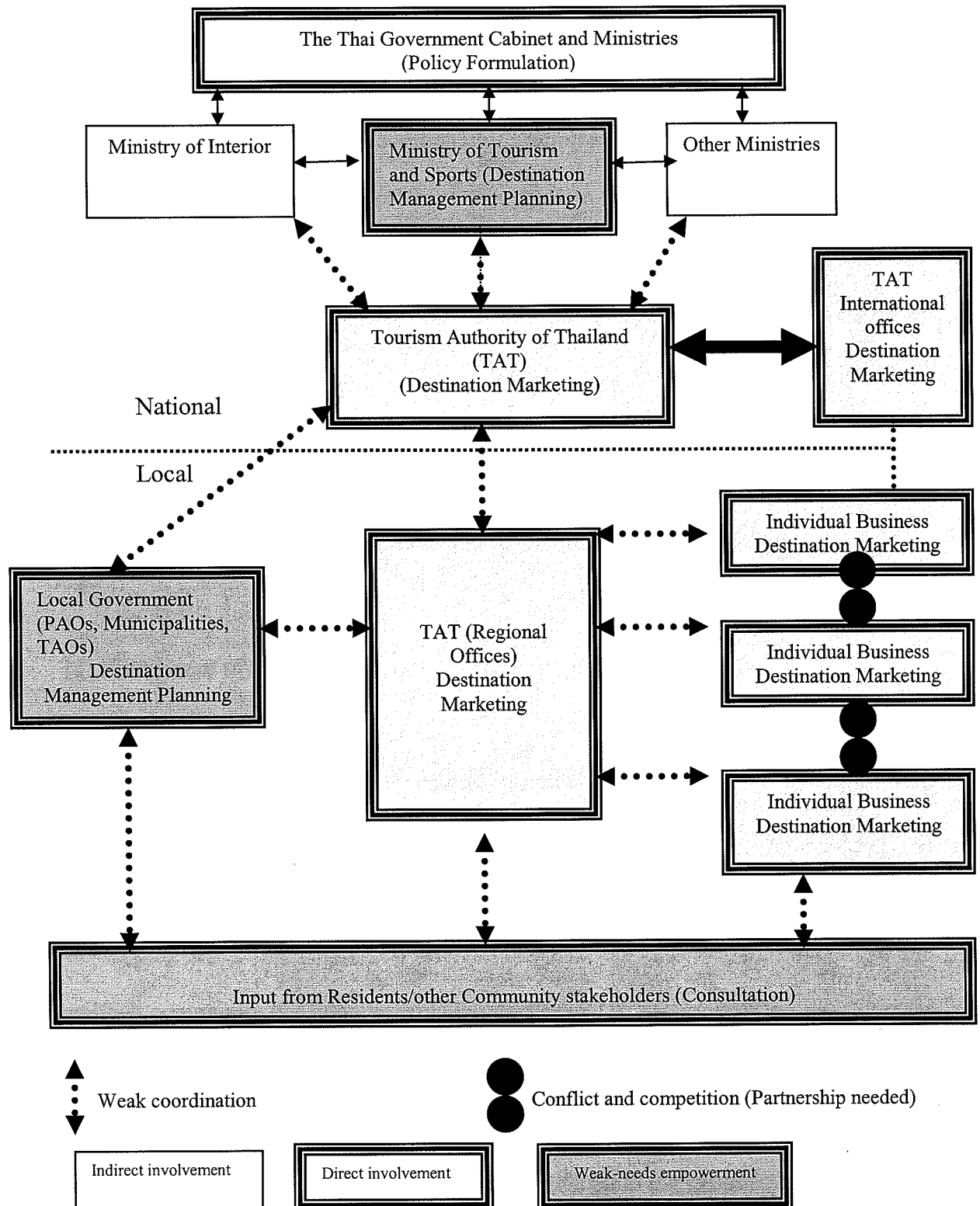
Table 16: Roles and Key Accountabilities

*MTS= Ministry of Tourism and Sports

Roles		
Destination Management (Planning)	Lead Agency	Support Agencies
Identify community stakeholders	Regional TAT, TAOs	MTS, TAT, and Private sector
Developing community destination management plan	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs	MTS, TAT, Community & Industry
Developing core infrastructure and environmental management. (eg, fresh water, waste water, solid waste, coastlines)	Government, PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs	MTS and private sector
Developing local public transport network	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs	Private Sector
Ensuring tourism friendly regulatory environment (Rating Policy, Consents, Concessions)	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs	Department of Forestry, Department of Fine arts MTS, TAT, Regional TAT
Quality Accreditation (eg Sector Codes of Practice)	Industry Sector Agencies.	MTS, TAT
Community engagement in planning	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs	MTS, TAT, regional TAT
Educating the community about tourism	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs	Regional TAT, Private sector
National Industry monitoring and research	TAT	Regional TAT, Tertiary Institutions,
Regional and Local Industry monitoring and research	Regional TAT	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs
Lobbying Local and Central Government on policy affecting the tourism industry.	Industry associations	
Destination Marketing		
Target markets identification and selection	TAT, Regional TAT	Private sector
Developing community tourism marketing strategy	Regional TAT	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs, industry
Developing Accommodation	Private Sector	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs, TAT
Destination Branding	Regional TAT	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs, TAT
Marketing to International Consumers	TAT	Regional TAT, Private sector
Educating Thailand based Inbound Tour Operators	TAT	Regional TAT
Educating offshore TAT staff on community product	TAT	Regional TAT, Operators
Educating Offshore based travel trade including retail travel agents, wholesalers and airlines.	TAT	Regional TAT, Operators
Hosting media visits	TAT	Regional TAT
Distributing marketing collateral locally	Regional TAT	TAT
Distributing marketing collateral offshore	TAT	Regional TAT
Distributing marketing collateral within Thailand	TAT	Regional TAT
Domestic promotion, nationwide	TAT	Regional TAT
Packaging and selling travel offshore	Industry association	TAT
Raise awareness about opportunities, and benefits of their participation in tourism planning and marketing	MTS, TAT	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs, TAT
Facilitating community participation in tourism	MTS, TAT	PAOs, Municipalities, TAOs, TAT

Adapted from: Regional tourism organisation New Zealand-“Intervention Model for Regional Tourism Planning”, Retrieved August 17, 2004 from www.tourism.govt.nz/rtonz/roles-guidelines.htm,

Figure 13: Relationship Map



8.4 Recommendations:

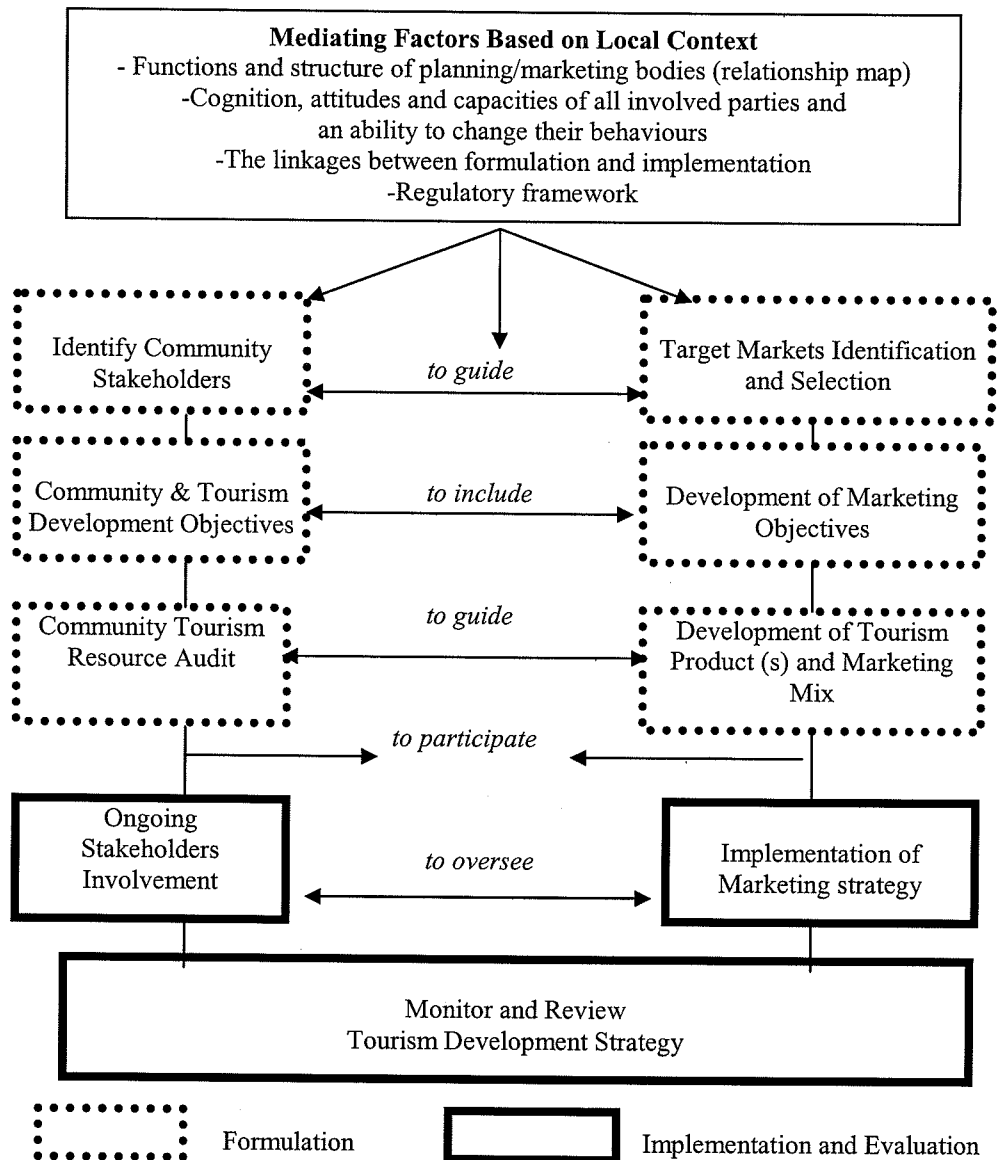
Pathways toward integrated tourism planning and marketing

Using the case study as a milieu, this section is aimed to summarise a proposed pathway towards integrated participatory tourism planning and marketing. The propositions offered in this thesis help formulate a model which will also establish basis for further inquiry in the field. The underlying premises of the model (Figure 14 overleaf) are first described. The results suggested that to operationalise the proposed model, several mediating factors, upon which pathways towards integrated tourism planning and marketing can be built, need to be evaluated. The model can then be adapted to suit specific local situation and/or planning issues in question.

(I) Premises of the model- community driven marketing

The proposed model outlines how community might be incorporated into the development of marketing strategies. The framework consists of a parallel planning process. The first process (right column) includes stages commonly associated with developing marketing strategies. The second process (left column) identifies the various community considerations which correspond to each marketing development stage. The key element of this model is being community's goals oriented which is used to guide the whole process of marketing strategies. An identification of target market needs to incorporate community stakeholders into the system.

Figure 14: Parallel Tourism Planning Systems for Integrating Community into Marketing/Planning



A wider range of target markets means that marketing campaigns or strategies will need to be designed to serve different needs and wants of each selected target

market. These include internal marketing (community based programmes) and external marketing (a destination marketing programme with inputs from community). The model also draws planners' attention to a consultative and communicative process where participation from identified community stakeholders and selected target markets should be treated as an ongoing process. This allows an extensive interaction and communication amongst planners/marketers as well as between planners/marketers and communities.

(II) Pathways towards the Integration: Bridging the Gaps

Cognition, attitudes, perceptions and abilities to change behaviours of different involved parties

An understanding of cognition, attitudes, and perceptions of different parties involved in tourism planning and marketing is a critical step. Such an understanding will then provide a foundation for a schematic behavioural change which is a very key to the success of community driven marketing and planning approach. Environmental degradation, socio-cultural deprivation and the issues of intergenerational needs occurs on a humanly imperceptible scale (Dam and Apeldoorn, 1996). Even though some of these processes can be, and are being 'informed' or 'promoted', individuals can hardly relate. Long-term consequences of individual behaviour for tourism development therefore are primarily a matter of belief, while personal (short-term) consequences are directly experienced. The fact found is that from a marketing point

of view it still feels more comfortable focusing on “*can tourism be sold or developed?*” To achieve community driven marketing it is important to increase planners and marketers attention to “*should tourism be developed and marketed? Is it worth its cost to society?*”

Formulation versus Implementation

The case study suggested that to pursue community driven planning and marketing, planners and marketers must recognise the differences between the formulation of tourism plan and the implementation of the plan. The case study indicated that formulating a plan tends to be conducted by an expert who acknowledges the necessity of including needs and wants of community and society at large. However, it was found in this case, and arguably in most destination areas, the planners, who are often an outsider or central governmental body, are not the implementers themselves. The cases also indicate that tourism plans lack clear detailed action plans and identification of who should undertake the tasks? Thus, marketing strategies which tend to overemphasise promotional tools become the obvious, easier-to-assess implementing strategies. Direct tourism benefits contributing to the well-being of community or society at large can not be easily identified or evaluated on a short term basis. It is therefore found that in the implementation process, promotional tools have become dominant as the most significant or the only implementing tools for the plan, the significant parts of the plan concerning socio-cultural and environment elements have been omitted. Even though it can be argued that marketing tools including promotional mix can also be used to ‘promote’ social

activities and goals, this type of social marketing was found to be mis-understood and employed insufficiently.

Institutional frameworks supporting tourism planning and marketing

Tourism planning and marketing is a multi-faceted and multi-scale phenomenon involving the provision of a wide range of interconnected goods and services by different entities (Pearce, 1995). Successful tourism planners and marketers need to have a clear understanding of the interplay and interrelationships between these different elements. Significant consideration should be given to make functions of all responsible planners and implementers explicit. In other words, the emphasis should be on questions of *who and how*, - that is who is developing local resources, who is planning for local areas, who is promoting the area, how participation from community could be gradually achieved. As it has been shown in the case analysis, failure to examine these elements may reduce the likelihood of the plan being implemented successfully, (or more explicitly the plan being unimplemented).

To achieve systematic and constructive participation, it is essential that all necessary planning entities and mechanisms synchronise with each other. One important item is therefore to develop an effective institutional framework where channel for interaction and communication amongst all involved planning and implementing parties is facilitated. It was found in this case that central government, national tourism planner (i.e. TAT) and local governments should play a significant

initiative role in this regard. Moreover, the case emphasises that if the nation employs tourism development as a means to overcome poverty and to gain economic prosperity, tourism planners and marketers inevitably face the tension between the priorities of *short term* economic gain on one hand and *long term* environmental loss on the other. Although the literature suggests that a combination of the two can be attainable, in reality as the case studies elicited, tourism planners and marketers found it to be “easier said than done”.

The cases illustrated one of the notably distinctive features of TAT as being a ‘multi-purposes’ agency which assume multi-scale and contestable tasks (marketing and conservation). Thus, it was found that tension to make these diverse tasks balanced exists within the same organisation. Planning direction tends to be geared overly by short term goals of the government’s economic policy. A communication and integration between marketing-oriented with emphasis on promotion and community-driven planning with long term environmental and social goals was found to be ineffective. There was no counterbalance agency (a ‘watchdog’), who can make such a debate more open and hence the planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating processes can be more overt and balanced. Nevertheless, this study did not draw conclusive answers as to whether a single purpose type of tourism organisation would outperform such a multi-purposes organisation. The findings lead to a conclusion that, to be effective, a clear stipulation of functions and structure of planning/marketing bodies is vital.

Regulatory framework

It has been advocated by several tourism scholars that to achieve a more responsible form of marketing, an effective regulatory framework must be devised (Middleton, 1997). This study supports such an approach. It was found that the level and pace of socio-economic and political advancement in Thailand (and arguably in most developing countries) has important implications for the efficacy with which legislature and institutional regimes are developed and applied for the promotion of environmental management and social responsibility. In the first instance, the imperatives of rapid social and economic development could influence the political will to initiate, implement and enforce appropriate environmental policies and laws. Secondly, these development imperatives often circumscribe the limits of resources available for environmental protection. Thirdly, implementing agencies often operate under severe resource constraints and fourthly, the relatively low level of public awareness, particularly environmental awareness does little to trigger a sense of urgency and resolve for political and legislative action for environmental management for sustainable development. In the absence of familiarity with environmental legislation and the environmental impacts of human activities there is likely to be no spontaneous observance of normative demands for efforts at environmental protection and enhancement. In the last instance, the desire to satisfy basic social needs and physical needs could very well override even basic environmental considerations.

8.5 Chapter Summary

One of the goals of this research is to identify practical implications for the development of Thai tourism. Although the research has raised more puzzles, problems and challenges than answers, these questions provide new insights at the least, and can lead to powerful explanations for causes that can be a guide to a more effective action. There are a number of significant obstacles that need to be overcome before the use of participatory planning is acceptable and commonplace. It was found that there is increasing recognition of the needs to involve the local community in the planning and marketing, however tools to promote participation are yet to be developed.

The study suggested the need for greater understanding of the fundamental principles underpinning participatory planning. While TAT has implemented some training programmes for local government officers, it would be necessary to evaluate whether the programme has demystified or simplified the process. To encourage local government officials to be more interested in learning more about effective approach to tourism planning and marketing, the training manual would need to be user friendly and obviously relevant to their circumstances. Time, whether for understanding or for using such a system, and more importantly the perceivable benefits are the key issues.

The key aspect of communication and interaction among all involved planners is in need of improvement. The study indicated that communication needed to be planned for and/or needed to occur more often. Developing a more formalised process for identifying involved stakeholders will enhance the effectiveness of participation.

CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSIONS

9.1 Introduction

This thesis aims to foster both research and practice in tourism planning and marketing. The syntheses of contemporary tourism marketing and planning literatures have to some extent shaped the many debates in the field, particularly in relation to symbiotic and parasitic relationships of the two. The review has demonstrated that during the early years the traditions of tourism planning were dominated by economic and marketing ideas. Over time, tourism scholars have voiced the negative outcomes of such an approach. As a result, community based planning, which emphasises participation and involvement of community in planning has come to the forefront.

As the community based planning concept is progressing, the literature has indicated clearly that marketing-led approach towards tourism development started to diverge significantly from the more widely accepted community based planning tradition. A specific question is raised about the negligence of marketing approach towards sustainability and the well being of the community and society. This research has attempted to reconcile this tension. Several themes related to societal marketing have been revisited to help examine two important features: (1) the potential contribution of marketing techniques to achieve greater community participation and (2) the potential integration and interface of marketing programmes and community based planning approach.

9.2 Summary

The literature suggested that community-driven marketing could potentially be achieved under certain conditions. First and foremost, marketers and planners need to realise that community, who has been omitted from marketing programmes, should be identified as primary tourism customers. Based on this perception, an adaptation of the fundamental concept of marketing, which has its key concern with being 'customer oriented', should dictate the overall tourism marketing programme with a greater attention being paid to the community. The significant part of this study has been devoted to the provision of the practicality of the contemporary theories on community-based planning and marketing. It is believed that to advance the theory it is important to build our understanding of what is actually undertaken and what can be employed given specific local conditions. The case analysis helps achieve this goal, reflecting that only good intentions and idealism about community participation in tourism planning and marketing are not a sufficient basis for real advances in our understanding. There is a need to evaluate critically the theory of community participation and assess in specific circumstances the aspects of practical initiatives that have worked well and those that have not. This means recognising that in practice there are often limitations to what will be or can be achieved. Due to such constraints, difficult choices and adaptations may have to be made about the priority given to the desirable outcomes.

There is little doubt that we have entered an era of genuine concern for the sustainability of all forms of development (World Commission on Environment and Development [WCED] 1987). Within this process, integrating community into the planning process is seen as a cornerstone. Nowhere is this readily more significant than in the field of tourism. In contrast with the extraction industries where concern for the community resources preservation and community participation is recognised as a constraint on development activity that must be tolerated, the tourism sector commonly views community resources, socio-cultural, and environmental matters as an opportunity. While it is true that environmental protection regulations, in some way, constrain tourism development, they also provide a mechanism by which we can act to ensure the integrity and the quality of the community resource base on which tourism so often depends for its success. As such, those responsible for policy formulation and for the operational management of tourism destinations must increasingly seek to understand the complex interplay of the forces that are at work to conserve our community natural tourism resources and to respond to community aspirations, as well as those that affect their effective deployment in the competitive marketplace.

Unfortunately, a great percentage of current tourism literature tends to take a uni-dimensional approach to destination management; it either addresses tourism management from an essentially community based planning perspective or it tends to focus almost exclusively on market-driven concerns. While lip service may be paid to

the need for balanced development, it is rare to find a reported example where there is a genuine concern for understanding for both the community based planning and market driven issues involved in the overall tourism development. It is even rarer to find a study where the interface between these two sides of the development dichotomy becomes an explicit element of the study process itself.

This study adds value to the existing work in community driven planning and marketing approach on a number of fronts. The research began by constructing models that make explicit the marketing theory implicit within tourism planning, thus opening up the possibility of empirically testing the validity of this model. Additionally, the empirical analysis of specific case examples was, to a certain extent, able to evaluate this model. Further examination of the relationships among tourism stakeholders, policy makers, planners, and community requires more research, especially to establish an important link in the forms of institutional arrangement and their relations. This study provides a foundation upon which future empirical researchers can use to further explore the relationships between different elements.

All those involved in tourism have a responsibility to learn how to contribute towards more sustainable forms of tourism. This research has done so from a planning and marketing perspective. The research raised many unresolved questions about how participatory marketing should be planned and what different organisations or entities can do about them in practice. Societal marketing poses the question of how can sustainable tourism be economically viable for private companies while meeting broad

economic, social and environmental needs? At the local level, there are very difficult choices to make. This study emphasises that it is easy to discuss responsible marketing; implementation is the problem. It is hopeful that this research has at least laid the pave way for which responsible marketers can build and contribute further to sustainable tourism development. It is time to walk the talk.

9.3 Future research

The case demonstrated that tourism development is closely interdependent upon the overall country's political, economic and social contexts. These factors have a complex interface. While broad goals of this research permit an establishment of a general framework regarding community-driven marketing approach, a detailed insight into each piece of factors need to be compromised. An analysis of the Thai tourism is one situation specific. It provides examples of a centralised structure of a government mandated body. Under different types of institutional arrangements, the results may not be universal.

All aspects discussed here open up several opportunities for future studies. Five areas are particularly of the researcher's interest. Firstly, the roles of National tourism organisation (i.e TAT) in training and empowering local bodies need to be further explored. Secondly, using different marketing techniques, further research can also be conducted to identify how training materials and programmes should be designed to enhance tourism knowledge of all involved parties. Thirdly, it is important

to examine marketing activities of individual firms in aggregate whether these activities and/or campaigns support the community aspirations. It would be interesting to compare and contrast 'community tourism product' identified by community and planners. Fourthly, more research is needed in making comparison of two distinctive institutional frameworks: 1) a comprehensive 'multi-purposes' planning and marketing task (i.e. TAT), and 2) a single purpose tourism organisation where planning and marketing are detached explicitly. Lastly, because of the inevitability of regulation, research should be directed at finding optimal regulatory frameworks and conditions supportive of responsible marketing, a community driven approach.

9.4 Concluding Remarks

The attempt made in this thesis is to reconcile a tourism marketing-planning relationship on the basis that current practices of tourism marketing approach are in conflict with community based tourism planning, and in a broader context, sustainable tourism development. To conclude, the nature of marketing-planning relationship at present can be best summarised as being one which is in equipoise. The view that tourism marketing and tourism planning could be symbiotic or even synergistic panacea must be tempered by the fact that the relationship is still one of conflict in many parts of the world. A classic article published by Dr. Garrett Hardin's in 1968, "The Tragedy of the Commons" manifests the challenge which tourism marketers and planners are facing; he described how herdsmen, each acting in their own self-interest, would logically overgraze the public pasture land (commons) and destroy this "public

good/free good" in the process because it cost them nothing to do so. In a recent cameo appearance on The Discovery Channel video segment "The Last Hunters" (Mare Holstrum Productions 1995), Dr. Hardin restated the basic "tragedy proposition" in the context of the modern fishing industry:

"I view the seas as a commons because anyone who wants to can go out there and hunt for fish. And -- as long as there aren't too many people in world it works fine. But once there are too many -- which is our situation now -- then they over exploit the seas and finally they may even extinguish some species. . . The trouble is that if 95% of the people do exercise restraint -- they have good consciences -- and 5% do not exercise restraint, the 5% will prosper at the expense of the others. The second effect is -- as years go by, seeing that 5% prosper more, the 95% start becoming corrupted and they start joining the minority . . . and once that happens all is lost because they'll ruin the commons through over-harvesting it. And what you have to get people to see is that there is no escape from this tragedy. And it is a tragedy because even though people see what's coming they can't avoid it. There's no escape from this tragedy unless you change the system (emphasis added).

Consequences of tourism development in many places are also the prominent manifestation of such an exploitative behaviour. Tourism 'stakeholders' are arguably still viewing "the earth" and 'tourism resources' as a global commons, made up of political, social, economic, and ecological dimensions, which define the quality of man's existence as well as that of all other species. It has been a strong call for 'responsible' approach toward tourism development whereby limited use or sustainable use of resources are being considered because the predictable long-term ecological result of allowing unfettered access to the resources of the commons, without imposing restraints, is its destruction. The challenge is to take responsible action now so as to avoid this fate in the future. The fact remains; changing this 'worldview' is our generic dilemma.

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APPENDICES

1. Letter of introduction
2. A brief summary of the research topic
3. Questions/General themes



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15 October 2001

Dear

I am currently undertaking research for my doctoral thesis (Doctor of Philosophy) at Lincoln University, Canterbury, New Zealand. My research is in the field of 'Tourism planning and marketing'. The purpose of this research is to explore how the current tourism marketing campaigns are planned and implemented. The focus of this study is on how communities, different tourism-related entities and organisations are involved in the tourism planning process.

Your organisation is one of many that plays an integral part in Thai tourism. Therefore your view of the planning and marketing processes currently undertaken in Thailand will be invaluable. The result of this research will provide a commentary on various perspectives, the strengths and weaknesses of the existing marketing approach. Understanding this market planning process from a wide range of involved parties will enhance the success of future tourism activities.

The result of this research may be published, but you are assured of the complete confidentiality of data gathered in this investigation: your individual anonymity will be preserved. Should you wish to withdraw any information given or completely from the project, you can do so at any time.

I hope that your organisation will kindly provide relevant information for the completion of this research. I would also appreciate it if you could please give approximately an hour of your time to discuss this topic with me. Should you have any concerns during the interim, please contact me at the address below.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours Sincerely

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การปรับความสัมพันธ์ของสองแนวคิดระหว่าง
การวางแผนการท่องเที่ยวและการตลาดสำหรับการท่องเที่ยว
(Tourism Planning and Destination Marketing: Paradigm Realignment)
โดย
จุฑามาศ วิศาลสิงห์

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาปริญญาเอก สาขาวิชาการวางแผนการท่องเที่ยว มหาวิทยาลัยลินคอล์น ประเทศนิวซีแลนด์

ทฤษฎีการวางแผนการท่องเที่ยวเป็นสาขาวิชาใหม่ แนวคิดต่างๆของทฤษฎีนี้กำลังพัฒนาไปอย่างรวดเร็วเพื่อให้ทันกับความต้องการของนักวางแผนและนักพัฒนา ปัญหาการท่องเที่ยวเป็นเรื่องซับซ้อน และส่งผลกระทบทั้งทางบวกและทางลบ เป้าหมายสำคัญในการวางแผนคือเพื่อให้ประเทศได้ผลประโยชน์มากที่สุด และในขณะเดียวกันลดผลกระทบทางลบให้เหลือน้อยที่สุด งานวิจัยนี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งที่จะนำไปสู่จุดหมายนั้น โดยหาแนวทางเชื่อมความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างกระบวนการในการวางแผนและการดำเนินงานในด้านการตลาด

ในช่วง 10 ปีที่ผ่านมา นักวางแผนและผู้รู้ทางการท่องเที่ยวต่างถกเถียงกันอย่างมาว่า แนวทางในการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวนั้นควรใช้แนวคิดทางการตลาดเป็นเครื่องชี้นำ หรือ ใช้การวางแผนเป็นตัวกำหนดทิศทางในการทำการตลาด ประเด็นที่ยังหาข้อสรุปชัดเจนไม่ได้ คือ การวางแผนเน้นประเด็นในเรื่องของการจำกัดจำนวนนักท่องเที่ยว และกำหนดอัตราของการเจริญเติบโตของอุตสาหกรรมการท่องเที่ยวอย่างเหมาะสม แนวคิดนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อให้ส่งผลประโยชน์สูงสุดสำหรับทุกฝ่าย ได้แก่ ชุมชน นักธุรกิจ นักอนุรักษ์ เป็นต้น และเพื่อเป็นการสนับสนุนแนวคิดการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวอย่างยั่งยืน ความมีส่วนร่วมของชุมชนกลายเป็นหัวใจหลักในการวางแผนและพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยวในทางตรงกันข้าม แนวคิดทางการตลาดเน้น การเจริญเติบโตของอุตสาหกรรมและเพิ่มจำนวนนักท่องเที่ยวให้ได้มากที่สุด โครงการซึ่งเกี่ยวข้องกับการตลาดจึงเน้นความพึงพอใจของนักท่องเที่ยวเป็นหลัก

คำถามหลักของงานวิจัยนี้และประเด็นที่จะนำเข้าไปศึกษาคือ ในทางปฏิบัติมันจะเป็นไปได้หรือไม่ที่จะทำให้สองแนวคิดคือการวางแผนและการทำการตลาด สัมพันธ์กันและมุ่งสู่จุดหมายเดียวกัน อันได้แก่ การพัฒนาอย่างยั่งยืนโดยอาศัยการมีส่วนร่วมของชุมชนเป็นปัจจัยประสาน และในการดำเนินการดังกล่าวคาดว่าจะมีปัญหาและอุปสรรคอะไรบ้าง **หัวข้อสัมมนาทั่วไป ได้แก่**

- หน้าที่และความรับผิดชอบทั่วไปของหน่วยงานของท่านและความสัมพันธ์กับหน่วยงานอื่นๆ
- ขั้นตอนในการกำหนดแผน การทำการตลาด และการวางแผนโครงการต่างๆ
- ความคิดเห็นต่อวิธีการดำเนินงานวางแผนและการตลาดในปัจจุบัน และ ทิศทางในอนาคต
- ความคิดเห็นในเรื่องความพร้อมของชุมชนในการมีส่วนร่วมในการพัฒนาการท่องเที่ยว

General Themes and Questions

General Organisational and Historical Background

- Relationships between different series of National and Social Plan and TAT tourism plan
- New Constitutional law and its relations to TAT
- Relationships between national government and TAT
- Discuss strengths and weaknesses of the TAT organisational structure
- Relationships between headquarters and regional offices
- Relationships between TAT and local government
- Community programmes implemented by TAT or other tourism related organisations
- Identify factors that are detracting from the effectiveness of TAT

Planning and Marketing Process

- TAT marketing campaigns – concept and key components
- TAT tourism development and plan – concept and key components
- How are these plans formulated and implemented?
- Who or what organisations are responsible for different stages of planning and marketing?
- Who are the major beneficiaries of tourism development? Why?
- Comment on how and why has Thailand been able to maintain its position as one of the world's major tourism destinations? Is it expected to remain so in the future?
- What are challenges that several destination areas might face when attempting to implement responsible marketing?
- What future steps should be taken to facilitate the ongoing evolution of tourism development in a responsible and integrated manner?
- Historical background and evolution of community involvement in tourism
- How is it different today than during its prime?
- How important is tourism to the local economy?
- To what extent do host populations, governments, tourists, investors, and developers enhance participatory tourism planning and marketing philosophies and practices currently?
- What is required to encourage community participation in tourism planning and marketing?
- What created the environment for community initiation or lack thereof?
- What are strengths and weaknesses of the community participation process that was implemented in destination areas?
- What challenges impact the implementation of a community-inclusive planning process?
- What could be done to maximise community input in the future?
- What factors can render participatory programme effective and ineffective?
- Community awareness of tourism development and planning
- What do you want tourism development to bring to the community?
- What can community do to gain control of tourism development?
- Are there any training programme be offered to local residents to enable them to take control of their own tourism industry?